HEADS

OF

Philological Lectures,

INTENDED TO ILLUSTRATE

THE LATIN CLASSICKS.

For Dr Tait Edin

in proof of the great esteem
& attachment of

Ship Author

By Dr John Hill 1815
Edinburgh

HEADS

OF

PHILOLOGICAL LECTURES

INTENDED TO ILLUSTRATE

THE LATIN CLASSICKS,

In respect to the

ANTIQUITIES of ROME; the Rules of GENERAL CRITICISM; and the Principles of UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

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HEADS

OF

Philological Lectures.

PART I.

ANTIQUITIES OF ROME.

CHAP. I.

Of the Religious eſtabliſhments of the Romans.

I.

IN order to complete the ſtudy of any dead language, the learner's attention ſhould be directed to three great objects: to

the antiquities of the country in which the language was ſpoken; to the rules of thoſe kinds of compoſition in which it was handed down; and to the principles of univerſal grammar which directed it in common with all other languages whatever.

In the firſt he may diſcover reaſons originating from the manners, the cuſtoms, and the laws of a nation, why certain expreſſions excite certain ideas with which they are neither naturally nor arbitrarily connected: in the ſecond, he may diſcover the conditions of literary eminence in all ages, by complying with which former writers claimed the admiration of

their

their contemporaries, and retain that of their poſterity: in the third, he may diſcover the firſt laws of oral expreſſion; the intimate connection that ſubſiſts between words and things; the extent of thoſe licences which nature admits in ſome points of language, and the ſeverity of thoſe reſtraints which ſhe impoſes in others.

II.

The literature of Rome deſerves to be proſecuted with ſyſtematic exactneſs. From the ſplendour of the ſtate, the facts which form its antiquities have an unrivalled value. The monuments of Roman genius are both various and maſterly,

maſterly, and will delight while they improve the inquirer's taſte. The mechaniſm of the Latin tongue muſt be admired, as it is underſtood, and will give play to the ſubtlety even of the moſt acute obſerver.

III.

Between the hiſtory and the antiquities of nations there is a real, though not an obvious diſtinction. The antiquary attends to the authenticity of thoſe ſingle facts which the hiſtorian ſtates in detail. The former, jealous of the truth of what is affirmed, is ever ready to ſupport or to confute it, and

and is regarded by the latter as his moſt formidable critic.

Prejudices have ariſen againſt the ſtudy of antiquities, from a miſapprehenſion of the nature of the ſtudy itſelf. They who purſue it for amuſement only miſtake its end, and nothing is to be expected from their ſelfiſh induſtry. They who, from a blind partiality to the ancients, deny the moderns even the power of improvement, retard the ſucceſs of inquiries which they mean to promote.

The ſtudy of Roman antiquities is attended with many advantages. Liſt of theſe.

That

That view of the civil affairs of the Romans, which is neceſſary for underſtanding their language, will be uſeful as an introduction to a cloſer examination of the principles of Roman law.

Roman antiquities regard the *Religious*, the *Civil* and the *Military* affairs of Rome. The few articles not to be referred to any of the above mentioned heads, form a fourth diviſion.

Before entering upon the firſt of theſe, it may be worth while to inquire into the origin of the Roman ſtate.

IV.

IV.

That part of Europe called *Italy* has been ſubject to frequent and great revolutions. The nature both of the ſoil and the climate is highly inviting to ſtrangers, and the general effects of both upon the natives have aſſiſted emigrants in forcing a ſettlement.

There is reaſon to believe, that ſeveral of the countries upon the ſouth of Europe were peopled by the Celtic tribes, who came from the wilds of Scythia. The *Aborigines*, the *Pelaſgi*, and the *Arcadians* appear to have been colonies which emigrated, at different times, from Greece into Italy.

Rome,

Rome, at its foundation, was ſo inſignificant, as hardly to attract the notice, far leſs to excite the jealouſy of the ſtates around it. During its firſt wars, it ſtruggled for exiſtence itſelf. The time of its foundation is aſcertained by means of the *Olympiads*, which, tho' properly belonging to Grecian antiquities, muſt not be neglected in the ſtudy of Roman. Hiſtory of the Olympiads.

The wiſdom of Romulus ſeems to have been ſuited to the exigencies of his infant ſtate. Character of this great Lawgiver.

V.

V.

The firſt religion of the Romans was, in all probability, the ſame that prevailed among the Celtic tribes. Their lawgiver could have no temptation and little leiſure to make any remarkable innovation in this reſpect. The early Romans, like the Celtae, had no images of their Gods; and they employed human ſacrifices to appeaſe the wrath of their offended Deities.

Numa Pompilius introduced remarkable changes into the religion of Rome. *Tarquin* the elder, being deſcended of Greek anceſtors, did not reliſh the ſimplicity of the Celtic worſhip, ſo contrary to that to which he had been accu-

ſtomed, and made ſtill greater changes than Numa.

VI.

Roman *Temples* were firſt vowed, then defined, then dedicated, then conſecrated. Circumſtances that neceſſarily attended the different ſteps of this proceſs. Rites obſerved at the conſecration of temples. Sacred edifices at Rome were of different forms and kinds. In theſe feaſts were celebrated in honour of certain deities. The worſhip in Roman temples was ſolemn, and directed by forms, that could rarely, if ever, be altered.

Expla-

Explanation of terms and phraſes, that occur upon the above mentioned ſubjects.

Templum; Extemplo; Ædes ſacrae; Fanum; Delubrum; Sacellum; Lucus; Adoratio; Supplicatio; Lectiſternia; Selliſternia.

Templum Neptuni; *Plaut.*
Templa liberata et effata; *Cic.*
Suſcipere pulvinaria; *Liv.*
Ornare pulvinar deorum; *Hor.*
Dii contubernales Graece Συνναοι; *Cic.*
Praeire verba; *Juv.*
Tangere aras; *Virg.*
Incerare genua deorum; *Juv.*
Amplecti genua; *Virg.*
Suſpendiſſe veſtimenta; *Hor.*

Figere dona; *Virg.*
Exaugurare fana quae inaugurata fuerant; *Liv.* &c. &c.

VII.

The miniſters of Roman religion were divided into ſuch as ſerved no one deity in particular, and into ſuch as ſerved particular deities. Among the former the College of *Pontifices* held the firſt place; they had great perſonal dignity, and great official influence. Their number, and the mode of their election, varied at different periods of the ſtate.

The *Pontifex Maximus* was diſtinguiſhed by particular privileges, and

and by certain arbitrary reſtrictions, which ſerved rather to make his perſon reſpectable than to prevent him from enjoying any of the comforts of life. Nature and extent of his juriſdiction.

The College of *Augurs* hold the next place to the College of Pontifices. They did not give and enforce orders. They declared what appeared to be the will of the gods, and left it to the people to judge whether or not they ought to regard their intimations.

They profeſſed ability to diſcover the will of the gods in a variety of ways, eſpecially by the flight, the ſinging, and the chattering of

birds. Ceremonies obſerved by the Augurs in the exerciſe of their function. Of the *Pullarius* and ſacred chickens.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Tutulus; Oſcines; Praepetes; Lituus; Co-optare; Deſiderare; Conſiderare.

Pontifices minores; *Liv.*
Pontificum potiore caenis; *Hor.*
Pro collegio reſpondere; *Cic.*
Et ſpectionem et nunciationem habere; *Cic.*
Tabernaculum capere; *Liv.*
De coelo ſervare; *Cic.*

Auſpi-

Auſpicium coactum et expreſſum ; *Cic.*

Addixere aut admiſere aves ; *Liv.*

Soliſtimum tripudium ; *Cic.*

Procurare portenta ; *Cic.*

Veſtire aliquem dibapho ſacerdotii ; *Cic.*

Impetritum eſt ; *Plaut.*

Difference between Precatio ; Votum ; Gratulatio ; Impetritum ; Sacrificium ; *Val. Max.* &c. &c.

VIII.

The *Aruſpices* and *Extiſpices* profeſſed an art by which they were underſtood to diſcover, from different circumſtances attending a ſacrifice, whether or not the wrath

wrath of the deity was appeaſed. Enumeration of theſe circumſtances, and diviſion of them into thoſe which happened before, and thoſe which happened after the death of the victim.

The *Duumviri* conſulted the Sibylline books. Time and manner in which they did ſo. Hiſtory of theſe books.

The *Rex Sacrorum* performed certain duties in religion, which were done by the Kings before their expulſion. He had the appearance of regal dignity in certain reſpects, and in others he had it not.

The

The *Fratres Arvales*; *Curiones*; *Epulones Septemvirorum*; and *Feciales*, were colleges of prieſts leſs remarkable than any of the former. Office of each.

IX.

Among thoſe members of the Roman prieſt-hood who worſhiped one deity, the *Flamines* were none of the leaſt remarkable. They were originally three; the *Flamen Dialis*, *Martialis*, *Quirinalis*. The firſt of theſe, as the ſervant of Jupiter, was held to be the moſt honourable, and enjoyed particular privileges. He was ſubject to ſingular reſtraints. A Flamen might loſe his office, though an

an Augur could not. Suppoſed reaſon of this.

The *Veſtal virgins* were diſtinguiſhed both for the antiquity and the ſuppoſed importance of their office. They were the prieſteſſes of a goddeſs in whoſe worſhip that ſimplicity was viſible which marked the firſt religion of Rome. Their duty; their privileges; their reſtraints; their puniſhments.

The *Salii* were the prieſts of Mars, and take their name from part of that extravagant worſhip which they paid him annually in the month of March. Hiſtory of their ſhields.

The

The *Luperei* who worſhipped Pan, the *Potitii* and *Pinarii*, who worſhipped Hercules, the *Galli* who worſhipped Cybele, and the prieſteſſes of the *Bona Dea*, were members of the prieſthood not ſo often heard of as thoſe above mentioned. Hiſtory of each.

Certain ſervants attended the prieſts to aid them in the performance of their ſacred functions. Such were the *Camilli*, *Æditui*, *Tubicines*, *Tibicines*, *Popae*, *Victimarii*, &c.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Fibrae

Fibrae litantes ; *Lucan.*
Conticuere fibrae ; *Sil.*
Invenire fiſſum jecur ; *Cic.*
Exta regalia, muta ; *Feſt.*
Exta contraria ; *Suet.*
Adire libros ; *Liv.*
Recitare folium Sibyllae ; *Juv.*
Curio Maximus ; *Feſt.*
Dapes ſaliares ; *Macrob.*
Epulari ſaliarem in modum ; *Cic.*
Ferire foedus cum patre patrato ; *Liv.*
Inter ſacrum et ſaxum ſtare ; *Plaut.*
Prodere Flaminem ; *Cic.*
Dialis apicatus ; *Ovid.*
Coeleſtia arma ; *Liv.*
Capere virginem ; *Liv.*
Virgo maxima ; *Suet.*
Campus ſceleratus ; *Liv.*

A commentariis esse; *Grut.*

Tradere aedem sartam tectam; *Cic.*

Habere praecepta alicujus sarta tecta; *Plaut.* &c. &c.

X.

The deities who were the objects of worship at Rome, were so numerous, that it is impossible to attend particularly to the history of each. Polytheism is naturally embraced by unenlightened men. Reflections upon the inconsistencies which spring from religious sentiments, when improperly directed, and upon the influence of the supposed character of deities on that of their worshippers.

XI.

The great celeſtial deities worſhipped by the Romans were twelve.

Though the ancients believed that there was but one Jupiter, yet they ſuppoſed him to have a ſort of local diverſity not eaſily to be reconciled with this unity. *Jupiter Ammon, Olympius, Capitolinus.* Different kinds of *Fulmen* employed by Jupiter at different times. His *Sceptre*, his *Bird*, his *Cupbearer.*

Jupiter Elicius; *Liv.*
Jupiter Malus; *Hor.*

Jupiter

Jupiter Vimineus; *Var.*
Sub Jove frigido; *Hor.*
Maturis metuendus Jupiter uvis; *Virg.*
Iracunda fulmina; *Hor.*
Jove judicat aequo; *Hor.*
Jovis epulis intereſſe; *Hor.*
Jovem lapidem jurare; *Cic.* &c.

Juno was alſo worſhipped under different characters; as Queen of heaven, and as preſiding over marriage, and over child-birth. Her *bird*, *attendant*, and *meſſenger*.

Juno materfamilias; *Plaut.*
Juno Profunda; *Claud.*
Juno Natalis; *Tibull.*
Jurare per Junonem ſuam; *Petron.*

Per dominae Junonis dulcia jura; *Propert.*
Juno Afris amica; *Hor.*
Junoni ſoſpitae facere omnes conſules neceſſe eſt; *Cic.* &c.

Minerva ſprang from the brain of Jupiter, and nothing was deemed too high nor too low for her obſervation. She patroniſed learning and the fine arts, and was accompanied by the nine *Muſes*. Her *names*, *dreſs*, and *enſigns*.

Minerva tenui; *Virg.*
Minerva pingui; *Cic.*
Minerva craſſa; *Hor.*
Minerva invita; *Hor.*
Minerva tetrica; *Martial.*
Minerva capta; *Ovid.*

Miner-

Minervae calculo, *i. e.* ſapientiſſimae Deae ſententia liberatus ; *Cic.*
Sus Minervam ; *Cic.*
Intactae Palladis urbem ; *Hor.*
Divina Palladis arte ; *Virg.*
Fronti praeponere olivam ; *Hor.* &c.

Neptune, the brother of Jupiter, obtained the dominion of the ſea. His *names*, *enſigns*, *chariot*.

Corpus acerbum Neptuni ; *Lucret.*
Sacri cuſtos Tarenti ; *Hor.*
Uterque Neptunus ; *Catull.*
Neptuno ſe credere ; *Plaut.* &c.

Venus was particularly reſpected

at Rome, as being the mother of Æneas. She was attended by two *Cupids* and three *Graces*.

Dicere cum gratia quadam et Venere; *Quint.*
Menſem Veneris marinae; *Hor.*
Ingrata Veneri ſuperbia; *Hor.*
Segneſque nodum ſolvere Gratiae; *Hor.*

Mars was reſpected on two accounts, as the father of Romulus, and as the God of war. Attended by a cock, as an emblem of watchfulneſs and of a diſpoſition to fight. The goddeſs *Bellona* acted as his charioteer.

Mars

Mars forenſis; *Ovid.*

Martiales lupae; *Hor.*

Martia avis; *Ovid.*

Plus quam Marte dubio; *Vell. Pat.*

Marte ſuo res ſuas recuperat; *Cic.*

Marti ſuo agrum conſecrat; *Flor.*

Mars vigila; *Ovid.*

Condere ancilia; *Tac.*

Motis, nec dum conditis ancilibus; *Suet.*

Excubias Gradive tene; *Val. Flac.*

Vulcan was regarded as a lame black-ſmith. His employment and names. Mode of worſhipping him.

Luteus

Luteus Vulcanus; *Juv.*
Furit immiſſis Vulcanus habenis; *Virg.*
Lampadem alteri tradere; *Lucret.* &c.

Veſta had a fire kept continually burning upon her altar, as an emblem of that perpetual empire which it was expected the Romans would acquire and retain over the nations of the earth. Form of her temple, and nature of her worſhip.

Perfudit nectare Veſtam; *Virg.*
Canae penetralia Veſtae; *Virg.*
Caſtae narratum ſomnia Veſtae; *Propert.* &c.

Apollo

Apollo was the patron of muſic, poetry, and ſome other arts, and particularly of the ſcience of botany. His *names*, *enſigns*, *meſſenger*.

Apollo pulſator citharae; *Val. Flac.*
Dextro Apolline carmen facere; *Ovid.*
Apolline digni crines; *Ovid.*
Nunquam humero poſiturus arcum; *Hor.*
Eris mihi magnus Apollo; *Virg.* &c.

Diana was the goddeſs of the woods and mountains, and the patroneſs of hunters. Her *names*, *dreſs*, and *enſigns*.

Iracunda

Iracunda Diana; *Hor.*
Dianae non movenda numina; *Hor.*
Tria virginis ora Dianae; *Virg.*
Studia incinctae Dianae; *Ovid.*
Et Triviae lumina ferre Deae; *Propert.*
Diva triformis; *Hor.* &c.

Ceres, the goddeſs of corn, was annually worſhipped with much ceremony. Nature of the ſacrifice offered to her. Her *enſigns.*

Ceres legifera; *Virg.*
Caena Cerealis; *Plaut.*
Aurae Cereales; *Plin.*
Cererem corruptam undis; *Virg.*
Cereris ſumus omnia munus; *Ovid.*

In caſto

In casto Cereris esse; *Fest.* &c.

Mercury was the messenger of Jupiter, and found employment in heaven, earth, and hell. His ensigns were the *Petasus*, *Talaria*, and *Caduceus*.

Mercurius facundus; *Hor.*
Animarum vector, Graece ψυχοπομπος; *Apul.*
Viri Mercuriales; *Hor.*
Geminoque facit commercia mundo; *Claud.*
Non tam caduceo quam nomine oratoris ornatus; *Cic.*
Mittere hastam et caduceum; *Gell.* &c.

To the above mentioned deities, ſtyled *Dii Majorum Gentium*, were added eight *Dii Selecti*. Theſe were *Janus*, *Saturn*, *Rhea*, *Genius*, *Pluto*, *Bacchus*, *Sol*, and *Luna*. Hiſtory of each.

There were beſides *Dii Minorum Gentium*, conſiſting of the *Indigetes*, ſuch as *Hercules*, *Quirinus*, &c. of the *Semones*, ſuch as *Pan*, *Terminus*, &c. and of certain mental affections, ſuch as *Faith*, *Honour*, &c. Of the *Infernal* deities.

Obſervations upon the origin of Hero-worſhip. Circumſtances which lead to the deification of heroes, ſtyled *Apotheoſis*. Effects of

of this practice, as discernible in Roman mythology.

Explanation of terms and phrases, &c.

Janum custodem pacis; *Hor.*
Ad medium Janum; *Hor.*
Grave Saturni sidus; *Propert.*
Dens curvus Saturni; *Virg.*
Defraudare Genium suum; *Ter.*
Funde merum Genio; *Pers.*
Deo irato meo; *Ter.*
Domus exilis Plutonia; *Hor.*
Quisque suos patimur manes; *Virg.*
Exorare lanificas puellas; *Martial.*
Furiae justae; *Virg.*
Furias immisit honestas; *Stat.*

Viſaeque canes ululare ; *Virg.*
Durum Bacchi domitura ſapo-
rem ; *Virg.*
Bacchi ſomno gaudentis et um-
bra ; *Hor.*
Digiti Baccho digni ; *Ovid.*
Dives amico Hercule ; *Hor.*
Decimam partem Herculi pol-
lucere ; *Plaut.*
Terrores panici ; *Polyaen.*
Vertumnis natus iniquis; *Hor.* &c.

XIII.

The *rites* obſerved at Roman ſacrifices were numerous, and of very different kinds. By a rite is underſtood a circumſtance which, though trivial in itſelf, yet, as an indication of ſome internal ſenti-
ment,

ment, is underſtood to be of high importance. Like other conventional ſigns, rites vary in different countries.

At the beginning of every *Sacrifice* a prayer was offered up, during which the moſt profound ſilence was kept. In the prieſt, who ſerved at the altar, were expected the ſtricteſt temperance, great cleanneſs in his perſon, and ſuch attention to dreſs as argued reſpect for the ſacred work in which he was employed.

XIV.

It behoved the victim to be choſen from a number, and free from

any blemiſh; to be one of thoſe ſuppoſed agreeable to the deity worſhipped; to be adorned with wreaths, and to have its horns gilt; to have been, before the ſacrifice, the property of ſome perſon, and not a wild animal.

During the greater part of the time of a ſacrifice, that ſilence was maintained that was at firſt ordered. The profane were deſired to begone.

Of the *immolatio* and *libatio*.

Mode of lighting the fire upon the altar, and of putting the victim to death. Duty of the *Aruſpices*, and manner of performing it.

Variety

Variety of circumſtances from which conjectures of good and evil were drawn. When the ſacrifice was over, the people were formally diſmiſſed by the prieſt.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Semper ſacrificem neque unquam litem ; *Plaut.*
Hoſtiae praecidaneae ; *Gell.*
Melior victima ; *Virg.*
Amplecti aras ; *Virg.*
Dare ſacratis oſcula liminibus ; *Tibull.*
Favete linguis ; *Virg.*
Paſcito linguam ; *Feſt.*
Bona verba dicere ; *Tibull.*
Veſtes purae ; *Tibull.*

Solida viſcera; *Virg.*

Procul extenſum petulans quatit hoſtia funem; *Juv.*

Linquere aliquem ſub cultro; *Hor.*

Jecur ſine capite inventum; *Liv.*

Tractare fiſſum familiare et vitale, *Cic.*

Hoſtili de parte videre; *Lucan.*

Inter caeſa et porrecta; *Cic.*

Reddere exta; *Tac.*

Adolere penates flammis; *Virg.* &c.

XV.

Between ſacrifices offered to the celeſtial, and thoſe offered to the infernal deities, there was a conſiderable

derable difference. Certain circumſtances render it more difficult to trace the origin of rites inſtituted in honour of the latter than of the former.

At a ſacrifice to the infernal deities, black victims were offered inſtead of white; they were put to death in a different manner; the prieſt was beſprinkled with water inſtead of being waſhed. He beat the earth with his foot, &c.

The rites obſerved at luſtrations were different from any of thoſe mentioned. End of their inſtitution.

In

In the celebration of the rites obſerved at ſacrifices the prieſts and their attendants made uſe of a variety of vaſes, and other ſacred implements.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Nigram Hiemi pecudem, zephyris felicibus albam; *Virg.*
Supponere cultros; *Virg.*
Nocturnas inchoat aras; *Virg.*
Invergit vina ſacerdos; *Virg.*
Percutere terram pedibus; *Cic.*
Congeſta cremantur dona; *Virg.*
Nil jam coeleſtibus ullis debentem; *Virg.*
Hoſtiae amburbiales; *Feſt.*
Ambarvale ſacrificium; *Serv.*
Condere luſtrum; *Liv.*

Acerra;

Acerra; Thuribulum; Praefericulum; Simpuvium; Seceſpita; Aſpergillum, &c. &c.

XVI.

As the care of dividing *Time* belonged to the prieſts, and as the ſcrupulous attention paid to feſtivals, was the ſureſt foundation upon which a regular calendar could be built, the hiſtory of the diviſion of time among the Romans may be deemed an appendage to that of their religion.

Length of the year inſtituted by *Romulus*. Changes made by *Numa*. Manner in which the difference between the Solar and Lunar

nar year, termed the *epact*, was made up. Improvements upon the Roman calendar by *Julius Caeſar*.

The Romans divided their year originally into ten, and afterwards into twelve months. Hiſtory of the name of each. They reckoned the days of their months by *Calends*, *Nones*, and *Ides*. They had a *dies naturalis* and *civilis*, and *dies feſti*, *profeſti*, *interciſi*, *praeliares*, &c.

Hours in the natural day were fixed fractions of an integer that was continually varying with the ſeaſons. Difference between the length

length of an hour in ſummer and in winter.

Sun-dials were introduced at Rome during the firſt Punick war. They were then extremely imperfect from not being ſuited to the latitude of the place. Of the *Horologia* and *Clepſydrae*.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Biſſextus; Biſſextilis;

Horae aequinoctiales; *Plin.*
Hora ſexta; *Cic.*
Triſtes calendae; *Hor.*
Martiae calendae; *Juv.*
Ad calendas Graecas; *Suet.*

Menſes

Menſes incerti ; *Virg.*
Sidus confectum ; *Plin.*
Luna ſilens ; *Plin.*
Luna tacita ; *Virg.*
Luna ſitiens et ſicca ; *Prop.*
Laboranti ſuccurrere Lunae ; *Juv.*
O lucem candidiore nota ; *Cat.*
Creta an carbone notandi ? *Hor.*
Ad clepſydram latrare ; *Cic.* &c.

XVII.

The hiſtory of the *Games* of the Romans may alſo be regarded as an appendage to that of their religion. Theſe games were exhibited either in the *Circus*, the *Amphitheatre*, or the *Theatre*. They were ſuch as returned at ſtated intervals,

intervals, and ſuch as were occaſional.

Form and extent of the *Roman Circus*. Manner in which it was ſeated. Its different parts, as the *Carceres*, *Oppidum*, *Spina*, &c. Chief entertainments exhibited in it, and mode of conducting each.

Of all the *Amphitheatres* at Rome, that begun by *Veſpaſian*, and finiſhed by *Titus*, was the moſt ſplendid. Its ruins ſtill ſhew its magnificence. Its form and extent. Different parts of an Amphitheatre, as the *Podium*, *Praecinctiones*, &c. Of the *Gladiators*. Their diviſion into *Secutores*, *Retiarii*, *Mirmillones*, &c. Their

mode of fighting. Signs and conſequences of the approbation or the diſapprobation of the ſpectators.

In the early ages of the Roman ſtate *Theatres* were but ſlight buildings made of wood. Theatre reared by Pompey the Great, both capacious and durable. Of the *Scena*, *Proſcenium*, *Poſtſcenium*, *Pulpitum*, and *Orcheſtra*. Theatrical entertainments were exhibited by *Comedians*, *Tragedians*, and *Pantomimes*. Circumſtances in which the dreſs of each agreed and differed. Opinions of antiquaries as to the *chorus*, the *muſic*, and the *muſical inſtruments*. Reflections upon the good and bad effects which the attachment of the Romans to games

games and ſhews may be ſuppoſed to have had upon their national character.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Munerator; Perſona; Delphines et ova.

Tomentum circenſe; *Mart.*
Mors ultima linea rerum; *Hor.*
E carceribus ad calcem pervenire; *Cic.*
Mittere mappam; *Mart.*
Peragere miſſus; *Suet.*
Decus olei; *Tibull.*
Gladiatoria ſagina; *Tac.*
Ad ludum vel ad gladium damnati; *Ulp.*

Exire tela; *Virg.*
Depelli gradu; *Nep.*
Latere tecto abſcedere; *Ter.*
Saepe dabis nudum, vincat ut ille, latus; *Tibull.*
Utroque pollice laudare; *Hor.*
Paſtoricia fiſtula; *Cic.*
Securus cadat, an recto ſtet fabula talo; *Hor.* &c. &c.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Of the Civil Affairs of the Romans.

I.

ROMULUS began very early to make diſtinctions among his followers, and divided the whole into the *Patricians*, the *Knights*, and the *Plebeians*. From the firſt of theſe orders the *Roman Senate* was originally compoſed.

The number of ſenators increaſed in the days of Romulus himſelf,

ſelf, in thoſe of *Tarquinius Priſcus*, of *Sylla*, of *Julius Caeſar*, and was at laſt reduced by *Auguſtus*. The mode of electing ſenators varied at different periods of the ſtate. While the power of election was in the Cenſors, certain abuſes were committed by them, which were afterwards reſtrained by the *Ovinian law*. Rank, wealth, and age of thoſe who might expect admiſſion into the order. Badges of ſenatorian dignity.

Times and places at which the Senate met. Mode of its convocation. Extent of its juriſdiction. Manner in which its buſineſs was introduced, tranſacted, and decided. Of the *Princeps Senatus*.

II.

II.

The *Knights* at Rome were originally the King's life-guards. Their number was greatly augmented by ſome of the ſucceſſors of Romulus. Difference among the *Equites*, as *Equo merentes*, and as *Equo publico donati*. Conditions of admiſſion into the order. Its badges.

The Knights appear to have been in the different capacities of *ſoldiers*, *judges*, and *tax-gatherers*. Of the *Tranſvectio*, and the *Princeps juventutis*. The order of Knights by being ſubordinate to that of the Patricians, and ſuperior to

to that of the Plebeians, ſerved to ſtrengthen the union between the two.

III.

The Patricians at Rome derived their dignity from birth, the nobility derived theirs from office. The hereditary badges of nobility were properly *two*. Wiſdom of the Romans in prompting the fidelity of the magiſtrate by making him anticipate in idea the gratitude of his honoured deſcendants.

At firſt the plebeians could not be ennobled by office, but were mortified by diſtinctions which the weak

weak vanity of their ſuperiors ever diſpoſed them to magnify. For cementing parts naturally diſcordant and prone to ſeparation, Romulus inſtituted the relation between *Patron* and *Client*. The choice of the patron was more judiciouſly given the clients, than that of the clients would have been given the patron. Of the reſpective and the reciprocal duties of this hereditary relation.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Populus; Plebs; Laticlavii.

In ſententiam alicujus pedibus ire; *Cic.*

In

In alia omnia diſcedere; *Caeſ.*
Mutare calceos; *Cic.*
Nigrae lunam ſubtexit alutae; *Juv.*
Eximere diem dicendo; *Quinct.*
Excitare aliquem; *Liv.*
Annulo aureo donari; *Suet.*
Sedere in quatuordecim; *Mart.*
Minor ordo; *Mart.*
Traducere equum; *Ovid.*
Pollicita eſt nobis ſportula, recta data eſt; *Mart.*
Cujus patrocinio civitas utebatur; *Sall.* &c.

IV.

Beſide the diſtinction among Roman citizens ariſing from birth, another, it was obſerved, aroſe from

from official dignity. Magiſtrates were either *ordinary*, or *extraordinary*. Their juriſdiction was confined either to the city or the provinces. Other grounds of diſtinction mentioned and explained.

The *Conſuls* were the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the ordinary magiſtrates. Their power was leſs an object of jealouſy than that of the Kings, on *two* accounts. They continued in office a ſhorter time under ſome of the Emperors than during the Republic. Enſigns of their dignity. Extent of their power. Security againſt the abuſe of it. Of the *Conſul ſuffectus*.

One

One *Praetor* was at firſt created to undertake the adminiſtration of juſtice. The number of Praetors increaſed, with the duty aſſigned to them. This duty was of various kinds. Rank of the *Praetor Urbanus*. Enſigns peculiar to the fraternity.

Two *Cenſors* were created to perform what was originally a part of the duty of the Conſuls. Hiſtory of the *Cenſus*, and advantages attending the inſtitution. The Cenſors had a power of inſpecting the behaviour of all their fellow citizens, and of inflicting puniſhments ſuited to the rank of the delinquent. They were the guardians of national virtue, and by marking

marking indecencies, they checked the growth of crimes.

The *Ædiles Curules*, *Plebeii*, and *Cereales*, were created at different times. Hiſtory of their office. Their enſigns. Of the Ædile's Edict.

The *Quaeſtores aerarii* were keepers of the public treaſure. Place in which this was depoſited. They gave a ſtrict account of what they received and diſburſed. They had other important pieces of duty to perform beſide that of being treaſurers. Of the *Quaeſtores Provinciales*.

The *Tribunes of the people* were remarkable both for the extent and the abuſes of their prerogative. Reaſons of their being created. The Tribunician power, when at its greateſt extent, may be reduced to *five* great articles. The balance of the conſtitution being deſtroyed by it, Sylla gave it a ſevere check. Under the Emperors the office grew contemptible, and, though not diſcontinued, yet might be numbered among thoſe things which Tacitus ſtyles the *Simulacra libertatis.*

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Do;

Do; Dico; Addico.

Auſpicia majora et minora; *Gell.*
Auſpicia pedeſtria; *Feſt.*
Auſpicia Caduca; *Feſt.*
Auſpicia perennia; *Cic.*
Auſpicium liquidum; *Plaut.*
Auſpicium juge; *Cic.*
Volucrem ſceptro quae ſurgit eburno; *Juv.*
Praetor honoratus; *Ovid.*
Lex annua; *Cic.*
Loca Ædilem metuentia; *Sen.*
Caerite cera digni; *Hor.*
Cenſum agere; *Liv.*
Cenſorium funus; *Tac.*
Hirudo aerarii; *Cic.* &c.

V.

The origin and progreſs of Government may be traced in the hiſtory of that of Rome. It underwent all the changes which political eſtabliſhments can undergo. During its beſt times, it exhibited a mixture of *Monarchy*, *Ariſtocracy*, and *Democracy*. View of the reſpective powers of the *Conſuls*, the *Senate*, and the *People*. Manner in which theſe different powers were balanced, ſo as to retard the corruption of any one of them.

Without ſtudying the hiſtory of Rome, its antiquities cannot be underſtood. Hiſtory, without the accu-

accuracy of the antiquary, would degenerate into romance, and antiquities, without the hiſtorian's arrangement, would preſent a ſet of inſulated facts, not to be referred to the purpoſes of ſcience.

" Altera alterius poſcit opem et
" conjurat amice."

Hiſtorical account of the changes that took place in the Roman government. Prerogative of the firſt Kings. Changes introduced by *Servius Tullius*. The firſt revolution in the Roman ſtate extinguiſhed monarchy. Grievances ſuffered under the ſucceeding ariſtocracy produce another revolution. Arrogance of the Tribunes

at the beginning of the Democracy.

The revival of the *Agrarian law* incenſed the Patricians. Comparative merit of *Marius* and *Sylla*, the heads of two great parties. The reſtoration of Ariſtocracy was the iſſue of their diſpute. Controverſy between *Pompey* and *Caeſar*. The ſucceſs of the latter formed the fourth revolution in the Roman ſtate. Even the fall of Rome gave proof of its magnificence. The origin of many modern nations is to be found in the ruins of this great Empire.

VI.

VI.

Beſide the magiſtrates already mentioned, there were extraordinary ones appointed only upon particular emergencies.

The *Dictator* is entitled to hold the firſt place among theſe. The Greeks, with much propriety, ſtyled the dictatorſhip an αιρετην τυραννιδα, as the ſtate thereby experienced, occaſionally, the advantages of an abſolute government, without being always ſubjected to its evils. A Dictator was originally created for *two* purpoſes only. He was named by the Conſul in a particular manner, and could be created only upon certain conditions.

tions. Duration of his office. He was ſubjected to reſtrictions, ſome of which appear to have been arbitrary, and others needful to temper the extravagance of his power.

The *Magiſter Equitum* was generally named by the Dictator. His enſigns were nearly the ſame with thoſe of the Praetor. He was the firſt ſubject in the ſtate, and had that inſpection over the cavalry in particular, which the Dictator had over the people at large.

The *Praefectus Urbi* was the Lieutenant of the Kings and Conſuls during their abſence from the city,

city, and ſeems to have poſſeſſed the whole of their power.

The *Interrex* was created when there was no King or no Conſuls. Mode of his appointment. The firſt Interrex had not all the powers of his ſucceſſors. The office is ſingular in one reſpect, that it was never held by a Plebeian.

Other extraordinary magiſtrates deſerve attention, ſuch as the *Decemviri* and the *Tribuni Militum conſulari poteſtate*, the *Praefecti Annonae*, &c.

Before the ſecond Punic war, the Conſuls and other ordinary magiſtrates, were able to attend to the

the government of the provinces. When the Empire increaſed to a certain degree, this became impoſſible. *Proconſuls* and *Propraetors* were created.

Diviſion of the provinces into Conſular and Praetorian. The governours of both received their powers and inſtructions from the Senate. Extent of their powers. Manner in which they left the city, and entered it upon their return.

New diviſion of the provinces by Auguſtus, expreſſive of his ſubtlety as a politician.

Each governour had along with him one *Quaeſtor*, and at leaſt three *Legati*.

Legati. Duty of each. Examination of the Proconſul's accompts.

The magiſtrates were attended by certain officers termed *Scribae*, *Accenſi*, *Lictores*, *Praecones*, &c. They were diſtinguiſhed alſo by certain enſigns expreſſive of their dignity, as *faſces*, *ſecures*, &c.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Praetor maximus; *Liv.*
Vitioſus Dictator; *Liv.*
Prodere interregem; *Cic.*
Eſſe cum imperio vel cum poteſtate; *Feſt.*
Ornare conſules; *Cic.*

Ornare

Ornare, ſortiri, comparare provincias; *Liv.*

Amici Imperatoris primae admiſſionis; *Suet.*

Agere forum; *Cic.*

Ad urbem eſſe; *Cic.*

Legare ſibi aliquem; *Cic.*

Legatio libera, orba, votiva; *Cic.*

Scriptum facere; *Liv.*

Emere decuriam; *Cic.*

Proximus Lictor; *Sall.* &c. &c.

VII.

The original diviſion of the Roman territory was into three parts. Each of theſe was divided into ten *Curiae*. Each *tribe* had its *Tribune*, each Curia its *Curio*, and over

over the whole of the Curiae preſided the *Curio Maximus.*

Servius Tullius overturned this diviſion, and created the *Tribus ruſticae* and *urbanae.* The people were thus diſtinguiſhed, not by their rank, as formerly, but by the place of their abode.

The other diviſion of the people into *claſſes* and *centuries* by Servius Tullius, was purely political, and intended to make power accompany wealth. Number of Centuries in each claſs, and wealth of thoſe who compoſed it. The loſs of political importance, upon the part of the poorer citizens, was made up by a proportionable ex-

emption from taxes and public ſervice.

VIII.

The nature of the *Comitia* at any given time, was fixed by the manner in which the people were called to attend, whether in Curiae, Centuries, or Tribes. General purpoſes for which the Comitia was held. Times and places of holding ſuch aſſemblies.

At the *Comitia Curiata*, when ſixteen of the thirty Curiae agreed in opinion, the matter under diſcuſſion was ſettled. Influence of the Senate upon its deciſions. The buſineſs of the court reſpected

three

three articles chiefly. Power of the Lictors, who convoked it. The new forms of holding the Comitia introduced by Servius and the Tribunes, did not ſuperſede the uſe of the old.

The *Comitia Centuriata* was underſtood to be the moſt dignified aſſembly. The higheſt offices were filled, the moſt important laws enacted, and the moſt dangerous crimes tried and puniſhed by this court. Interval between its convocation and actual meeting. Place where it was held. Circumſtances which prevented and which diſſolved the Comitia. Mode of *canvaſſing*, and of *giving votes*.

The *Comitia Tributa* was as favourable to the ſpirit of Democracy, as the Comitia laſt mentioned was adverſe to it. Before this court was held, no regard was paid to the will of the Senate, nor to the reſponſes of prieſts. Buſineſs tranſacted there. Of the inveſtiture of certain magiſtrates by means of *two Comitia* of different kinds.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Ovile; Comitium; Concilium; Diribitores; Incenſi; Obnuntiare.

Morbus

Morbus major et Comitialis; *Celſ.*

Diminutio capitis; *Cic.*

Promulgare legem; *Cic.*

Figere atque refigere leges; *Virg.*

Quae Curia fuerat principium; *Liv.*

Claſſici et infra claſſem; *Gell.*

Fodere latus; *Hor.*

Centuria praerogativa; *Liv.*

Centuriae jure vocatae; *Liv.*

Fieri auctores in incertum comitiorum eventum; *Liv.*

Omne tulit punctum; *Hor.* &c.

IX.

Roman *trials* were divided into thoſe ſtyled *Judicia publica* and thoſe ſtyled *privata*. Form of trials

under the firſt Kings, when there could hardly be any ſyſtem, either of Common or of Statute Law. When civil trials multiplied, ſo as to give ſufficient employment to the two Praetors, four ſtanding courts, ſtyled *Quaeſtiones perpetuae*, were created to take cognizance of certain criminal offences.

The ſummons given the perſon accuſed was accompanied with particular ſolemnities which were never omitted. Power of the appellant in fixing the mode of trial. Of the court of *Centumvirs* and *Decemvirs*. Form of proceſs obſerved in trials of every kind. Of the *Recuperatores*, *Judex quaeſtionis*, &c. The judge gave ſentence with

with a degree of modeſty becoming the guardian of the rights of his fellow citizens.

Beſide the trials that were conducted before particular judges, there were others brought before the people aſſembled in their Comitia. Form of proceſs in theſe laſt mentioned.

The Romans had a variety of puniſhments ſuited to the variety of crimes, and to the circumſtances which might modify particular offences. Enumeration of theſe.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

An-

Anteſtari; Ampliatio; Comperendinatio; Divinatio.

Opponere auriculam; *Hor.*
Intendere actionem; *Cic.*
Edere actionem; *Plaut.*
Abjicere haſtam; *Cic.*
Praeſtare jusjurandum calumniae, *Cic.*
Sonticus morbus; *Gell.*
Prodicere diem; *Liv.*
Certare multam; *Cic.*
Litera triſtis vel ſalutaris; *Cic.*
Relegatus non exul dicor; *Ovid.*
In robore expirare; *Liv.*
Sutorio atramento abſolutus; *Cic.*
De ſaxo dejici; *Liv.*
Corpus in gemonias trahunt; *Tac.*

Inſcripta

Inſcripta ergaſtula; *Juv.*
Literam ad caput affigere; *Cic.*
&c. &c.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of the Military Affairs of the Romans.

I.

THAT which is ſtyled the national object in any country, whether it be War or Commerce, produces very remarkable effects upon the character of its inhabitants. Compariſon between the ſuppoſed effects of each of theſe national objects.

The

The founder of Rome was under a neceſſity either of vanquiſhing ſome of his neighbours, or of periſhing in the attempt. Valour, accordingly, in the eye of him and his followers, was the firſt quality of human nature. This military ſpirit, that was coeval with the Roman ſtate, received ſtrength from a variety of circumſtances, eſpecially from religious ſentiments, artfully inſtilled and directed.

The inhabitants of Rome ſeem at firſt to have formed a militia, ready to execute the ambitious purpoſes of their Prince. When a ſubordination of ranks took place, every citizen was not allowed the honour

honour of ſerving his country as a ſoldier.

Manner in which the *Delectus* took place. The *Military Tribunes* diſpoſed to chooſe thoſe firſt who had lucky names. Puniſhments of thoſe who refuſed their ſervice. Circumſtances which could prevent a perſon from being forced to ſerve his country as a ſoldier. State of the *Socii* and *Auxiliares*. Of the *Sacramentum*, or military oath.

The *Roman Legion* varied, in point of number, at different periods of the ſtate. Its leaſt and its greateſt number. The number in the *Cohort*, the *Manipulus*, and the

the *Century* depended on that in the Legion at any particular time. Superiority of the firſt to the other Cohorts, and of the firſt *Troop* of *Cavalry* to the other Troops. Diviſion of the *Infantry* into the *Velites*, the *Haſtati*, the *Principes*, and the *Triarii*. Diviſion of the Cavalry. Number of campaigns during which each ſoldier was required to ſerve. Different ways in which military ſervice ended.

Proportion borne by the Legion of the Socii to that of the Romans. Doubtful whether the former conſiſted of diviſions ſimilar to thoſe in the latter. When the monuments from which the antiquary gathers his information fail him,

his reſearches end. The moment he gives play to conjecture, he quits his province.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Scribere exercitum; *Liv.*
Agere delectum; *Liv.*
Conficere delectum; *Gaeſ.*
Duabus Legionibus ſubitariis tumultus ejus cauſa ſcriptis; *Liv.*
Emerita ſtipendia; *Tac.*
Vacatio aetate data; *Liv.*
Ob vitium vel morbum dimiſſus; *Suet.*
Exercitus juſtus conſularis; *Liv.*
Egregie Legiones, nec ſegnius duae

duae alae pugnabant; *Liv.* &c. &c.

II.

The *Commanders* in a Roman army were ſuch as had authority either over the infantry or the Cavalry, or over both. The *Imperator* had very extenſive powers. His authority implied a ſuſpenſion of the *Porcian* and *Sempronian* laws reſpecting the rights of private citizens. The ſplendour of conqueſt, in the eye of the Romans, cancelled the ſeverity, and even the iniquity of whatever led to it.

The *Legati*, in the performance of their vicarious duty, poſſeſſed

the ſame power with the Imperator himſelf. Number of Legati not always the ſame.

The *Centurions* were choſen from all the orders of ſoldiers, except the Velites. Rank of the *Primipilus*, and ſteps through which his rank was obtained. Number of *Military Tribunes* not the ſame at different periods of the ſtate. Their duty, and manner of performing it.

The *Praefecti Equitum* and *Decurio* had preciſely the ſame powers among the Cavalry, which the Tribuni Militum and Centuriones had among the Infantry.

A Roman army was remarkable, and tried the ſkill of its leader in three different ſituations; when marching, encamped, and drawn up in order of battle.

Before a *March* was undertaken, the intention of the leader was notified by the *Teſſera*. Manner in which this was circulated. The *Claſſicum* ſounded three times, for three different purpoſes. Of the Military Muſic of the Romans. Weight carried by each of their ſoldiers upon a march, and quickneſs with which he moved. Different forms of the *Agmen*, and purpoſes ſerved by each. Chief dangers to which an army, when marching, is expoſed. Ordinary

means of prevention employed by Roman generals.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Ductu Germanici, auſpiciis Tiberii; *Tac.*

Auſpicium ex acuminibus, quod totum militare eſt; *Cic.*

Frangebat vertice vitem; *Juv.*

Spoliis laudabor opimis; *Virg.*

Ut ſexageſimus annus locupletem adferat aquilam; *Juv.*

Luſtrare exercitum; *Caeſ.*

Praejurationes facere; *Feſt.*

Lituo tubae permiſtus ſonitus; *Hor.*

Non tuba directi, non aeris cornua flexi; *Ovid.*

Vaſa

Vaſa militari more conclamare; *Caeſ.*

Juvenes per mediam concionem agmine ingreſſi; *Liv.* &c.

III.

When a Roman army was upon a march, *Metatores* were ſent forward to chooſe, and to mark out a place for an encampment. In the choice of this ſpot, *two* objects were always kept in view. Roman camps had different names, and were differently fortified, according to the time it was propoſed to uſe them. Of the *Manſiones*, and *Caſtra Æſtiva*, and *Hiberna*.

Pyrrhus

Pyrrhus firſt taught the Romans the art of conſtructing a camp. They were ever ready to learn from their enemies, and to profit by their misfortunes.

The figure of a Roman camp was almoſt always ſquare. Of the *Praetorium*, the *Forum*, the *Tents of the Tribunes*, the *Principia*. Manner in which the Infantry and the Cavalry were encamped illuſtrated by a plan. Of the *ſtreets*, the *tents*, the *gates*, the *rampart*, the *ditch*.

The camp was the chief ſeat of military diſcipline. The moſt exact order was wiſely preſerved in it. Courage is the quality of troops

troops only in certain ſituations, and the braveſt, when ſurpriſed, may yield to their inferiors, both in valour and number. Regularity obſerved in the *excubiae*, *vigiliae*, and *circumitiones*. Of the ſervants of the camp, and the *proceſtria*.

IV.

The Roman *Acies* was ſo judiciouſly formed, that the ſmalleſt number of men could operate with the greateſt effect, and reſources were provided for the misfortunes moſt likely to occur. Its form was not the ſame at every period of the ſtate, nor with every number of men. The *Velites* had an undeter-

undetermined ſtation, and were ſubſervient to particular purpoſes. The *Haſtati* ſtood in front; the *Principes*, equal in number, ſtood behind them, and the *Triarii* reſted on their knee behind the two other ranks. Hence the latter were called by the Latins *Subſidia*, and by the Greeks εφεδροι.

Station of the *General*, the *Cavalry*, the *Socii*, and *Evocati*.

Compariſon between the Roman *Acies* and the Macedonian *Phalanx*. The latter exhibited a ridiculous parade of ineffective force, and was formed to deſtroy itſelf. No military theory was ever adopted at Rome, whoſe ſoundneſs had not

not been proved by experience, nor was any attempt made to reconcile the rigid application of maxims with the neceſſary contingencies of war. The *Globus*, the *Cuneus*, the *Forceps*, the *Serra*, were adopted, according to exigences.

Of the General's ſpeech, and other circumſtances, which happened immediately before the engagement commenced. Of the Roman *Standards*, and the reverence in which they were held.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Vallus; Vallum; Barritus.

Ædificare

Ædificare hiberna; *Liv.*
Caſtra fovere; *Virg.*
Manere ſub pellibus; *Liv.*
Poſt principia eſſe; *Ter.*
Teſtamentum in procinctu facere; *Cic.*
Subſidite quaſi ſolent Triarii; *Plaut.*
Directa acie pugnare; *Vell. Pat.*
Res ad Triarios rediit; *Liv.*
Proponere vexillum; *Caeſ.*
Amplecti ſigna et aquilas; *Tac.*
Pertica ſuſpenſos portabat longa maniplos; *Ovid.*

V.

Roman *Arms* may be divided into offenſive and defenſive, in reſpect both to battles and ſieges.

The

The choiceſt metal was employed, and the greateſt art exhibited in their formation. The warrior's body was protected by the *Galea*, *Caſſis*, *Scutum*, *Clypeus*, *Lorica*, *Parma*, *Ocreae*, *Caligae*. Deſcription of each. The weapons with which he attacked his foe were the *Gladius*, *Haſta*, *Pilum*, &c.

Armour uſed by the *Velites*, *Haſtati*, and *Equites*.

The arms uſed, both as offenſive and defenſive, at ſieges, had the general appellation of *Machinae*. To the former belonged the *Teſtudo*, the *Scalae*, the *Crates*, the *Vineae*, the *Plutei*, and *Arietes*.

The conſtruction of the *Baliſtae* and *Catapultae* ſeems not to be thoroughly underſtood, in ſpite of the relief ſtill extant upon Trajan's pillar. Explanations of *Vitruvius* by the moderns darker than the ſubject explained. Uſes of thoſe engines.

Of *Circumvallations* and *Mines*. Stratagems uſed by the beſieged to render the attacks of the enemy ineffectual.

Changes introduced into the art of war by the invention of Gunpowder. The inſtruments of death have become leſs deſtructive in proportion as they have been rendered formidable.

VI.

VI.

As the Romans formed their *Navigia* for the purpoſes of war only, theſe may be regarded as floating batteries, and, of courſe, as a ſpecies of military engines. Their rivalſhip with Carthage led them to attempt ſhip-building. Their early misfortunes at ſea created no deſpondence, nor any dread of that element which the commerce of their enemies had rendered familiar to them.

Non hydra ſecto corpore firmior
Vinci dolentem crevit in Herculem.

The Romans were more diſpoſed to uſe the oar than the ſail, on

two accounts. The number of oars increaſed with the ſize of the ſhip to be moved. By a curious and artful diſpoſition of the oars, the rowers added to the impulſe, without allowing thoſe in the different banks to interfere.

The ſide of the ſhip muſt have born upon the water at an angle much leſs than a right one, and the ſurface ſwept, though larger than the ſpace occupied by all the oar-holes, muſt have been always proportioned to it. Model of a Roman ſhip.

Of the *Biremes*, *Triremes*, *Quadriremes*, &c. Manner in which naval engagements were conducted.

Expla-

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Arma atque tela; *Sal.*
Haſtae velitibus amentatae; *Cic.*
Colligere haſtam; *Tac.*
Parmaque inglorius alba; *Virg.*
Ad clypeum, haſtam, fraenum; *Polyaen.*
Caeco contendere Marte; *Virg.*
Minae murorum; *Virg.*
Naves orariae; *Plin.*
Naves actuariae; *Liv.*
Naves onerariae; *Caeſ.*
Suo remigio rem gerit; *Plaut.*
Socii conſurgere tonſis; *Virg.*
Res jam in vado eſt; *Ter.*
Velis immitte rudentes; *Virg.*
Demittere antennas; *Caeſ.*

Aurato fulgebat Apolline puppis;
Virg.
Adnectit ſuppara velis; *Stat.*
Obliquare ſinus in ventum;
Virg.
Una omnes fecere pedem; *Virg.*
&c. &c.

VII.

Roman wiſdom was more manifeſt in nothing than in an accurate adjuſtment of rewards to merit, and of puniſhments to the contrary. *Military rewards* were ſuited to the rank of the ſoldier, and to the danger of the ſervice. An advancement was valued, not by the rank given, but by the interval between the ſtations quitted and obtained.

The

The Imperator only could obtain a *triumph*, an *ovatio*, and a *laurea*. Subaltern officers got promotions, and a large ſhare in thoſe rewards that were beſtowed on common ſoldiers.

Military rewards may be divided into *ordinary* and *extraordinary*. The former were pay, quantities of corn, and portions of land, at the end of a meritorious ſervice. The latter conſiſted of ſhares in plunder, of crowns of different kinds, &c.

Origin and augmentations of the *Stipendium*.

Military

Military puniſhments roſe in proportion to the demerit of the offence committed. The offender ſuffered in his perſon, rank, food, pay, or he was diſmiſſed.

The ſevereſt puniſhment was an ignominious death, and this was inflicted either upon every delinquent, or upon one in a certain number of the whole.

Hiſtory of the *Fuſtuarium*, or Baſtinade.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Umbrata gerunt civili tempora quercu; *Virg.*

Literae

Literae laureatae; *Liv.*

Proſequi geſta laureatis; *Tac.*

Referre lauream Jovi Capitolino; *Suet.*

Dare commoda militibus; *Ovid.*

Dare mulſum militibus; *Liv.*

Hordeum pro tritico dare; *Liv.*

Centuriones diſcinctos deſtituit; *Liv.*

Mihi inter frequentes ſtipendium procedere jubebis; *Cic.*

Facere aliquem aere dirutum; *Cic.*

Mitti domum pro infrequenti militia; *Plaut.*

Ob fugam fuſte percuſſus; *Vell. Pat.* &c. &c.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Various Articles in the Antiquities of Rome, not to be referred to the above mentioned Claſſes.

I.

IN order to increaſe the number of citizens, the Romans took every method to diſcourage celibacy, and to encourage *Marriage*. Enactments for theſe purpoſes. The *Lex papia popaea* was diſobeyed by thoſe who were called to enforce

enfore its obſervance. Reflections upon the policy of Auguſtus in reſpect to the propagation of the ſpecies.

Interval between the contract and marriage. Certain times reckoned unlucky, and not choſen for the celebration of nuptials. Of the conditions upon which matrimonial alliances took place at Rome. They were formed in three ways, *Confarreatione*, *Coemptione*, and *Uſu*. Hiſtory of each.

Enumeration of cuſtoms regularly obſerved at Roman marriages. Reaſons for which divorces were given. Difference between the *Divortium* and the *Repudium*.

Roman

II.

Roman *Funerals* were of two kinds, expreſſed by the terms *Indictivum* and *Tacitum*. The ſolemnities peculiar to both were religiouſly obſerved, from the influence which a due attention to them was ſuppoſed to have on the ſpirits of the deceaſed.

The ceremonies practiſed immediately before and after a perſon's death were expreſſive of the affection of his friends. They wiſhed to retain his ſpirit before, or to recal it after its departure.

The ſplendor of funeral proceſſions was generally proportioned to

to the rank of the deceaſed. Of the ſigns of mourning. Form of the *Funeral pile*; manner of ſetting fire to it. Of the aſhes.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Caia; Repotia; Stipulatio; Rogus; Pyra; Buſtum; Luctus; Moeror.

Innuptis jungere nuptiis; *Cic.*
Inſepultam ſepulturam efficere; *Cic.*
Pendere aes uxorium; *Feſt.*
Nucibus relictis; *Perſ.*
Adimere claves uxori; *Cic.*
Manes ne laede meos; *Tibull.*
Injecto ter pulvere curras; *Hor.*
E flamma cibum petere; *Ter.*

Faſces everſi et fax ſine luce; *Ovid.*

Minor igne rogi; *Juv.*

Abſenti ferre inferias; *Virg.*

Novendiales diſſipare pulveres; *Hor.*

S. T. T. L. &c. &c.

III.

The *Patria poteſtas* at Rome appears to have been almoſt incompatible with every natural right. A parent, it was thought, ſtood in need of encouragements which no voluntary benefactor required. If his child was tractable, natural affection the only ſentiment needed, would be the only one uſed; and if he was the contrary, the dread of unlimited authority might effect

a purpoſe in which the good of the community was concerned.

Original extent, and ſubſequent reſtrictions of the power of fathers. Nature of the act ſtyled *Adoptio*, and difference between it and the *Arrogatio*. Circumſtances by which the patria poteſtas was deſtroyed. Of the act of *Emancipation*.

IV.

The ſubjects of the Roman Empire found themſelves in very different ſituations, according to the place of which they happened to be natives. Gradation of privileges by the *Jus Civitatis*, the *Jus Latii*, and the *Jus Italicum*.

Period at which the Jus Latii and the Jus Italicum ceaſed, and every free inhabitant of Italy became a Roman citizen. Political effects of this change. Edict of *Caracalla*.

Of *Municipal towns* and *colonies*. Reaſons of their eſtabliſhment, and advantages derived from them.

The ſubjects of the Roman Empire were diſtinguiſhed by the privileges which they enjoyed from the rank of their parents, as well as by the place of their own nativity. They were either *Ingenui*, *Liberti*, or *Libertini*. Of the *Manumiſſio juſta*, *vel minus juſta*. The former

former was performed in three different ways, *Cenſu*, *Vindicta*, and *Teſtamento*. The latter in two, *Menſa* and *Epiſtola*.

State and employment of *Slaves* at Rome. Mode of ſelling them. Their learning ſometimes held forth as a recommendation to the purchaſer. It gratified the inſolence of the opulent, to command the perſonal ſervices of thoſe whoſe mental accompliſhments they could ſeldom rival.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Ingenio leni in liberos et illum obſequentem ; *Ter.*

Cernere haereditatem; *Cic.*

Suſcipere vel tollere puerum; *Ter.*

Ne ſis mihi patruus; *Hor.*

Grande conficio peculium; *Plaut.*

Civitate donatus; *Cic.*

Sui mancipii eſſe; *Cic.*

Vitaque mancipio nulli datur, omnibus uſu; *Lucret.*

Unus vernula, tres domini; *Juv.*

Servus feſtuca factus; *Plaut.*

Servi de lapide empti; *Plaut.*

Venire ſub corona; *Liv.*

Vocare ſervos ad pileum; *Macrob.*

Una Quiritem vertigo facit; *Perſ.* &c. &c.

V.

V.

The *Dreſs* of the Romans was an object of much attention, not merely as an article of decency and uſe, but as one great inſtrument for the diſplay of vanity.

The *Toga* was characteriſtic of the nation. Form, mode of wearing, and different kinds of it. Of the Toga *Praetexta*, *Pura*, *Pulla*, *Candida*, &c. Of the *Tunica*. Military dreſſes, as the *Paludamentum* and *Sagum*.

Certain pieces of dreſs were peculiar to each ſex, and others common to both. Of the extravagance

gance in dreſs that prevailed under the Emperors, and the reſpects in which this chiefly appeared.

VI.

From the accounts given us of the *Food*, and the mode of *Eating* among the early Romans, both appear to have been extremely ſimple. A taſte for the luxuries of the table would have deſtroyed thoſe military ſentiments, to which the ſtate owed firſt its exiſtence, and then its preſervation.

The ancient Romans ſat at meat round wooden tables, in the ſtructure of which conveniency was ſtudied more than elegance. When

Aſiatic

Aſiatic luxury crept in, a reclining poſture was adopted.

Form of thoſe couches upon which the Romans ate. Number which each was made to contain at the beſt entertainments. The moſt honourable place upon the *Triclinium* was not given to a Conſul, the urgency of whoſe buſineſs expoſed him to frequent interruptions.

The chief meal among the Romans was the *Caena*. They began it with eating ſuch food as tended to excite, without ſatisfying their appetite, and they ended it with fruits and ſweet meats. Sumptuary laws became neceſſary to reſtrain the intempe-

intemperate luxury of the Romans in the article of entertainments.

VII.

The *Wines* of the ancients were greatly ſtronger than modern wines. They were diluted with water in large vaſes, and thereby rendered more palatable, and leſs dangerous to the inhabitants of a warm climate. The luxurious mixed them with perfumes, that they might at once gratify the ſenſe of ſmell as well as the palate.

The territory of *Capua* was the moſt remarkable for its wines. Implements for the making and the

the cooling of wine. Veſſels in which it was kept, and out of which it was drunk.

The power of the *Rex Convivii* was abſolute. Individuals were obliged either to leave the company, or to obey his will. He directed the converſation, and called the toaſts.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Albus; Candidus.

Cretata ambitio; *Perſ.*
Perdere zonam; *Hor.*
Tunicatus popellus; *Hor.*
Veſtes virgatae; *Val. Flac.*

Pauperi-

Pauperibus munera pexa dato; *Mart.*

Cohibere brachium toga; *Cic.*

Arcta decet ſanum comitem toga; *Hor.*

Ab ovo uſque ad mala; *Hor.*

Promulſide aliquem conficere; *Cic.*

Scit ponere unctum; *Hor.*

Vitrique aeſtiva ſupellex; *Propert.*

Locus eſt et pluribus umbris; *Hor.*

Rarus venit in caenacula miles; *Juv.*

Caena dubia; *Ter.*

Caena ambulans; *Martial.*

Vina bibes iterum Tauro diffuſa; *Hor.*

Nobile

Nobile frigus aquae decoctae; *Mart.*
Interiore nota Falerni; *Hor.*
Chium maris expers; *Hor.* &c.

VIII.

The moſt ancient Romans were ignorant of the uſe of *Money*, as they only exchanged commodities in the way of barter. New wants, in the progreſs of ſociety, lead men to new devices. By means of the precious metals, the individual may have ſuch a ſhare of different commodities as he has need for, and his ſuperfluous property may be preſerved without waſte or incumbrance.

The blindneſs of avarice has made men conceive that money is the eſſence, inſtead of being the ſign of value. A miſer, during a famine, or in a deſert, may really feel thoſe evils which had long haunted his fancy.

Circumſtances by which the value of money, in any country, is accidentally diminiſhed or augmented. Hiſtory of changes, in the reſpects mentioned, upon Roman money. Penalties enacted againſt the embezzlement of the coin. From the ſpirit of the Roman government, money would be more regarded as the meaſure of

of value, than as the inſtrument of commerce.

Gold and ſilver coin was not known at Rome during the four firſt centuries. The *As* was the ſtandard of value, in reſpect to things appretiated, as well as of weight, in reſpect to thoſe tried by the balance.

Diviſions of the *As*. Names and value of the gold and ſilver coins. Mode of Numeration by means of *Seſtertii* and *Seſtertia*.

Of *Weights* and *Meaſures*. Diviſions of the *Libra*. Meaſures of

liquid contents, of diſtances and of ſurfaces.

IX.

Names among the Romans ſpecified the *Individual*, the *Gens*, and the *Familia*. The *Nomen* marked the Clan; the *Cognomen* the Family, and the *Praenomen* and the *Agnomen* agreed in ſpecifying the Individual; but the former regarded him as the member of a Family, and the latter as the ſubject of a ſtate. Examples.

Names were given to Boys upon the eighth, and to Girls upon the ninth day after their birth.

Expla-

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Nummus aſper et probus; *Sen.*
Igni ſpectatus; *Cic.*
Argentum aere ſolutum; *Sal.*
Argentum venae ſecundae; *Juv.*
Bis dena ſeſtertia nummûm; *Hor.*
Ad aſſem omnia perdere; *Hor.*
Haeres ex aſſe, ex quadrante; *Cic.*
Verſura ſolves; *Ter.*
Tanquam habeas tria nomina; *Juv.*
Jam nomina ſanguinis odit; *Ovid.*
Gaudent praenomine molles auriculae; *Hor.*
Sine praenomine familiariter ad me epiſtolam miſiſti; *Cic.*

Signum evidens die luſtrico extitit; *Suet.*

I. I. S. L. L. S. H. S.
LXII. LXXV. CCCC. &c.

X.

In a military ſtate, ſuch as Rome, attention was very properly paid to the formation of *High-roads*. The wilds of Nature were underſtood to furniſh a nurſery for rebellion, by preventing that ſpeedy infliction of puniſhment, by which alone it can be ſtopped.

As the Empire increaſed, the neceſſity of attending to roads increaſed alſo. Without ſuch attention, the territory would never have

have come to its inordinate extent, nor, of courſe, would that lethargy have exiſted, by which the ſtate was deſtined to periſh.

Encouragements given to thoſe who undertook the formation or reparation of roads. Dignity of the *Curatores viarum.* Waſte of labour and expence by Caligula, in undertaking to form roads that were nearly impracticable, and manifeſtly uſeleſs. Magnificence of the *Via Appia.*

In the ſtructure of roads, the Romans were more attentive to their durability than to the eaſe or the convenience of the traveller.

Veſtiges

Veſtiges of Roman roads in different parts of Britain.

XI.

The diſtribution and pavement of the ſtreets of Rome give a ſtriking view of the ſkill of the Romans in the formation of roads. Streets, by rendering many points in a ſmall ſpace acceſſible, fit it for the purpoſes of commodious habitation, and roads, by ſimilar means, fit a territory for thoſe of culture and commerce.

The city of Rome, by the ſucceſſive enlargements made by the Kings, occupied ſeven hills. Its diſpoſition and limits may be better known than any other point in

in Roman antiquities, as they reſt on local circumſtances that bid defiance to the waſte and changes of time.

The city did by no means increaſe in proportion as the Empire did, becauſe, at firſt, it contained almoſt all the ſubjects of the ſtate. Its extent under *Servius Tullius*, and under *Auguſtus*. Under the Emperors, the city and the ſuburbs were confounded. The circumference given to Rome by ſome antiquaries muſt be extravagant, as it ſuppoſes a diameter, which, even after *Aurelian*'s enlargement, it never could have had. Of the *Cloacae*, *Aquaeductus*, *Euripi*, and *Balneae*.

XII.

XII.

The wiſdom of the Romans appeared in the nature of their *Vectigalia.* They were impoſed only with a view to acquire and retain conqueſts, and to add to the ſecurity or the luſtre of the ſtate. In its early periods, perſonal ſervice was the principal tax, and when a permanent revenue became needful, the tendereſt attention was paid to the reſpective means of the contributors.

Difference between the *Tributum* and the *Vectigal*, properly ſo called. Effects of the conqueſt of Macedon upon the former. The latter

latter referred to all articles, both of Exciſe and Cuſtom; though, from the etymology of the term, it had at firſt denoted only a tax upon commodities carried to market.

Conquered lands were put in one of *three* ſituations, but in each, were conſidered as the demeſnes of the ſtate. The conditions upon which they were held, depended on the terms of ſurrendry, and ſometimes on the local ſituation of the province. Of the *Agri Decumani*, and *Scriptura*.

Not only were the fruits and juices of the vegetables upon the ſurface of the earth made the ſub-

ject of taxes, but alſo the ſalt, metals, and ſtones, that were brought from its bowels.

In the caſe of emergencies, the calls of government upon the patriotiſm of its ſubjects, were obeyed with ſuch chearfulneſs, as ſhewed that the poor were not oppreſſed with ſevere, nor the rich diſguſted with arbitrary exactions.

Of the *Ærarium militare*, the *Vigeſima manumiſſionum*, and the *Vigeſima haereditatum*.

Explanation of terms and phraſes, &c.

Agger; Margines; Salarium.

Munire

Munire viam; *Liv.*

Proxima meta viarum; *Virg.*

Sternere viam glarea; *Liv.*

Ad milliarium aureum ſub aedem Saturni pergit; *Tac.*

Purior in vicis aqua tendit rumpere plumbum? *Hor.*

Locare praedia ruſtica; *Liv.*

Ne ſi inſcriptum pecus paverit lege cenſoria multam committat; *Var.*

Cum per ignorantiam ſcripturae multa commiſſa fierent; *Suet.*

In lapicidinas facite deductus ſiet; *Plaut.*

Neque ex portu, neque ex decumis, neque ex ſcriptura vectigal ſervari poteſt; *Cic.*

CHAP. V.

ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY.

Extent and Divisions of the Roman Empire.

I.

WITHOUT attending to Ancient Geography, the information of the Antiquary muſt be incomplete. Changes on the ſurface of the Globe create changes on the Science which treats of the relative ſituation of its parts.

Flouriſhing cities have periſhed, and waſtes become populous.

Geography was very early ſtudied among mankind. Even Homer gives proofs of his ſkill in this ſcience. The projection of the Sphere not unknown to the ancients. Manner in which they formed their Maps. Their care in preſerving them.

II.

The diviſions of the Globe may be regarded as *Mathematical*, *Phyſical*, and *Political*.

Under the Mathematical, we conſider the earth as divided into parts

parts by the ingenuity of men, and thereby fitted to become the ſubject of a ſcience. Of its diviſions by the *Æquator* and *Meridian*; by the two *Tropics* and the five *Zones*.

The diviſion by *Climates* terminates at the Polar Circles, and does not exhauſt the ſurface of the earth.

Terms. *Aſcii*; *Amphiſcii*; *Heteroſcii*; *Periſcii*; *Antiſcii*; *Antipodes*; *Antaeci*; *Periaeci*; *Caecias*; *Vulturnus*; *Caurus*; *Favonius*, &c.

Under the Phyſical diviſion, we conſider the Globe as formed by

the hand of Nature, that is, as Terraqueous, or conſiſting of Land and Water. In this view, the mind takes the ſubject as it is preſented, and forms no ſtratagem for its own convenience.

The ſolid parts of the earth's ſurface are divided into *Continent*, *Iſlands*, *Peninſulae*, &c. The fluid into *Sea*, *Oceans*, *Bays*, *Friths*, &c. Continent and ſea are properly the continuity of that matter of which their reſpective diviſions are formed.

Under the Political diviſion, we conſider the Globe as diſtributed into *Empires*, *Kingdoms*, *Principalities*, &c.

The

The political arrangements that have taken place among men determine the nature of this view. Though theſe may have originated from cauſes that were accidental, yet they are permanent, and they allow no arbitrary ſelection of circumſtances upon which the mind can form a diviſion.

III.

That diviſion of the earth into three quarters, made by the ancients, is founded upon circumſtances, partly phyſical and partly arbitrary. The extenſive ſeparation between theſe, either by parts of the ſea, or by rivers, muſt have ſuggeſted

ſuggeſted the diſtribution adopted; but the continuity of land, forming the three, might have juſtified another. *Europe* and *Aſia*, for inſtance, might have formed but one part.

As the Romans aimed at univerſal conqueſt, ſo an exenſive degree of geographical knowledge is needful for underſtanding their hiſtory. Their ſplendid victories were not confined to Europe, though comprehending Italy, the ſeat of their Empire.

Ancient Diviſion of EUROPE.

I.

Hiſpania, how bounded. *Citerior vel Ulterior.* The former contained the territory ſtyled *Tarraconenſis*, the latter, thoſe ſtyled *Luſitania* and *Baetica.* Limits of each.

Towns, Rivers, Iſlands.

Amnis aurifer Tagus; *Cat.*
Hic certant, Pactole, tibi Duriuſque Taguſque; *Sil.*
Ferrugine clarus Ibera; *Virg.*

II.

II.

Gallia. Its boundaries. Divided into *Tranſalpina* and *Ciſalpina.* The former contained the territories called *Narbonenſis*, *Aquitanica*, *Lugdunenſis*, and *Belgica.*

Towns, Mountains, Rivers.

Rhenuſque bicornis; *Virg.*

III.

Britannia, when diſcovered by the Romans. Southern parts of it only known at firſt, and divided into *Superior* and *Inferior.* Extent

tent of the conquests of *Julius Caesar* and of *Agricola*. *Trinobantes*, *Silures*, *Brigantes*, *Horesti*, &c. Towns, Rivers.

Walls of *Severus* and of *Hadrian*.

Hibernia known only from its vicinity to Britannia, and never invaded by the Romans. Its Towns and Rivers.

British islands, *Vectis*, *Cassiterides*, *Mona*, *Hebrides*, *Orcades*, *Thule*.

——belluosus qui remotis
Obstrepit oceanus Britannis; *Hor.*

De

De conducendo loquitur jam Rhetore Thule; *Juv.*

IV.

Germania Antiqua, beſt known from Tacitus. Extent of its territory, and nature of its inhabitants. The Romans were acquainted with the *Mare Suevicum*, or Baltick, but knew little of that extenſive territory, ſtyled *Scandinavia.*

Great rivers of Germany.

Before the victories obtained firſt by Marius, and then by Germanicus, the Germans were the moſt formidable enemies with whom

whom the Romans engaged. 'Multa invicem damna,' ſays Tacitus. 'Non Samnis, non Poeni, 'non Hiſpaniae Galliaeve, ne Par-'thi quidem ſaepius admonuere.'

Extent and boundaries of *Vindelicia*, *Rhaetia*, *Noricum*, *Pannonia*, and *Illyricum*. Their Towns and Rivers.

V.

Italia Antiqua, divided into Ciſalpine Gaul, and Italy properly ſo called. The former divided into Gallia *Tranſpadana* and *Ciſpadana*. The latter contained many territories, accurately bounded and diſtinguiſhed by particular

names, as Etruria, Umbria, Latium, Campania, &c. Their relative ſituation beſt known by the uſe of maps. Names and character of their inhabitants. Towns, Mountains, Rivers.

Iſlands near Italy, as *Sicily*, *Sardinia*, *Corſica*, &c.

IV.

Graecia, when under the Roman government, comprehended a very extenſive territory. *Macedon*, *Theſſaly*, *Epirus*, and *Acarnania*, were conſidered as parts of it. Their extent and boundaries.

Achaia

Achaia often denotes all the territory between *Thermopylae* and the promontory ſtyled *Taenarium*. It was divided into the ſtates without the *Peloponneſus*, as *Ætolia*, *Baeotia*, *Attica*, &c. and into thoſe within it, as *Elis*, *Laconia*, *Arcadia*, &c.

Towns, Rivers, Mountains, Iſlands.

Vervecum in patria craſſoque ſub aere naſci ; *Hor.*
Taygetique canes, domitrixque Epidaurus equorum ; *Virg.*

Of *Thracia*, *Moeſia*, and *Dacia*.

Ancient Diviſions of ASIA.

I.

The diviſion of Aſia into *Major* and *Minor* was unknown to the ancients. They conſidered the Mountain *Taurus* as occupying an intermediate point, on the two ſides of which the diviſions of this extenſive territory lay.

What is called Aſia Minor is bounded by the Mediterranean on the ſouth, by the Euxine on the north, and by the Ægaean and Propontis on the weſt. It may be reduced

reduced to twelve countries, lying eaſt and weſt, in three diviſions, nearly parallel. Theſe are *Myſia*, *Bithynia*, *Paphlagonia*, *Pontus*, *Lydia*, *Phrygia*, *Galatia*, *Cappadocia*, *Caria*, *Lycia*, *Pamphilia*, *Cilicia*. Remarkable Towns and Rivers in each.

Adjacent iſlands, as *Tenedos*, *Chios*, *Rhodes*, *Cyprus*, &c.

II.

Countries that lie between the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas, and upon the territory ſouth of that tract. *Armenia*, *Colchis*, *Iberia*, *Albania*.

Armenia divided into Major and Minor, contains the ſources of the Euphrates and Tigris, and preſents a ſurface of very unequal height. Colchis lies to the eaſt of the Euxine, and Iberia, between it and Albania, which lies to the weſt of the Caſpian.

Euphrates ibat jam mollior undis; *Virg.*

Pontem indignatus Araxes; *Virg.*

III.

Syria and *Arabia* lie weſt and ſouth of the Euphrates. The moſt noted provinces of Syria were *Phaenicia* and *Paleſtina*, of which laſt

laſt *Judaea* formed a part. Arabia divided into *Petraea*, *Deſerta*, and *Felix*. Of *Meſopotamia* and *Chaldaea*.

IV.

Countries of great extent, and that were formidable to the Roman power, lie between the *Tigris* and *Indus*, as *Aſſyria*, *Perſia*, *Media*, &c. The territory named *Parthia*, originally narrow, increaſed with the reputation of its inhabitants.

V.

India, better known to the Macedonians than any other nation

in

in Europe. Divided into two great parts, within and without the *Ganges*. Aſiatic *Scythia* divided in the ſame way, by the mountain *Imaus*.

Ancient Diviſions of AFRICA.

I.

Ægyptus deſerves to be firſt taken notice of, from the extent and ſingularity of the country itſelf. Even the Greeks received inſtruction from it.

Divided

Divided into *Superior* and *Inferior*, which parts are ſeparated by an intermediate province, ſtyled *Heptanomis*.

The territory called *Delta*, from its reſemblance to the Greek character, comprehends five of the mouths of the Nile, and is formed by thoſe at *Peluſium* and *Heracleum*, the two moſt remote.

Towns. *Alexandria*, *Thebae*, *Canopus*, &c.

Cum pars Niliacae plebis, cum verna Canopi; *Juv.*
Succinctus patria papyro; *Juv.*
Fontium qui celat origines, Nilus; *Hor.*

II.

Libya, expreſſes at ſome times the whole of Africa, and, at others, that part of it which lies immediately weſt of Ægypt. Divided into *Marmarica* and *Cyreniaca*. The former contained the ſeat of the Oracle of *Jupiter Ammon*, and the latter the garden of the *Heſperides*.

Libycis verritur areis: Libycis lapillis; *Hor.*

Libya tritici ferax; *Claudian.*

Barbaras Syrtes ubi Maura ſemper
aeſtuat unda; *Hor.*

III.

III.

Numidia anciently comprehended all that territory which extends along the Mediterranean, to the river *Mulva*, and which correſponds with the kingdom of Algiers at preſent. A remarkable country in the hiſtory of Rome, from the attachment of *Maſiniſſa* to the ſtate.

Numidia Propria of ſmaller extent. Towns and Rivers.

IV.

Mauritania extended to the Atlantic Ocean. Divided into *Caeſarienſis*

ſarienſis and *Tingitana*, the firſt of which was once part of Numidia, and the laſt correſponds with what is now called Fez. Famous in Roman hiſtory, as being the kingdom of Bocchus, who delivered up Jugurtha. Towns, Rivers, and adjacent Iſlands.

The accounts given of Hanno's Periplus are ſo exceedingly fabulous, that nothing certain can be affirmed with regard to it.

Thoſe countries to the North, the Eaſt, and the South of the Roman Empire, were known to its ſubjects chiefly by report. The folly of their ambition began at laſt

laſt to ſhew itſelf. Their beſt Emperors perceived the commencement of that diſeaſe, by which Rome was to periſh, and conſidered the acquiſition of new territories as only multiplying the ſymptoms of political death.

HEADS

OF

Philological Lectures.

PART II.

RULES OF GENERAL CRITICISM, APPLIED TO ROMAN LITERATURE.

I.

PARTICULAR facts reſpecting the Roman Language are properly the ſubjects of ordinary teaching; thoſe general facts that

form the Principles of Criticiſm, and try the comparative merit of *Roman Literature*, are properly the ſubjects of Lecture, or Didactic Diſcourſe.

The Military ſpirit of the Romans made them long deſpiſe literary objects, as forming an interruption of the national career. Before the conqueſt of Carthage, they had little leiſure, and before that of Greece, they had as little inclination to purſue them. The latter ſubdued the ferocity of its conquerors, and purified their national taſte.

Literature is dependent upon three ſciences, *Grammar*, *Rhetoric*,

ric, and *Logic*. Province of each in regulating either the proceſs or the expreſſion of human thought.

The improvement of literature has been retarded by a variety of cauſes, eſpecially by the falſe ideas which men have formed of its nature. Speech is a power that ſprings neither from pure inſtinct, nor pure imitation, but partly from both. Though the operation is performed by a bodily organ, yet it is the effect of a mental energy. It is dependent upon the exertions of intellect, and is the exact picture of thoſe trains of thought which muſt precede its exerciſe.

The nature and the juſt order of the parts of ſpeech correſponds entirely with the nature and the order of thoſe exertions of mind, ſtyled its *powers*. This analogy traced.

Literature and Science go hand in hand. The former aſks the aid of the latter, and wiſhes to reſt upon it as its ſole foundation.

II.

The language of Rome, like its inhabitants, was of Celtic origin. Intercourſe with Greece ſerved to poliſh the rude Latin, and to ſupply its vocabulary with new terms. The reſort of Italians

ans and Foreigners to Rome produced a language unlike to that of any one of them, though, in ſome reſpects, agreeing with thoſe of them all.

Striking characters of the Old Latin, which made it unintelligible to the Romans of the Auguſtan age. Singularities in it, owing to the change, the eliſion, and the addition of letters.

The prieſts poſſeſſed entirely the ſmall ſtock of literature of which Rome could at firſt boaſt. They wiſhed their *Formulae* to be couched in terms as myſterious as poſſible, that the obſcurity of the ſigns might

might create an undeſerved reſpect for the things denoted.

The firſt remarkable improvement of the Latin tongue, took place towards the commencement of the firſt Punic war. Before this, Italy had been completely ſubdued. The Romans wiſely diffuſed the uſe of their language along with their conqueſts; and, by the ſuppoſed right which theſe gave, they impoſed a mark of ſubmiſſion which the vanquiſhed themſelves preſumed not, and which their poſterity were unable to diſclaim.

The introduction of the art of writing aided the improvement of the

the Latin tongue. This art arreſts conceptions that would otherwiſe eſcape, and gives ſuch permanence to their ſigns, as makes them fit ſubjects of criticiſm. It preſerves the beſt ſtandard, even in times that are not claſſical, and thus furniſhes the ſteps by which a progreſs in literature is accompliſhed. Mode of writing in ancient times. Of the *Stylus*.

The practice introduced by authors of reading their works in public, ſharpened the edge of Criticiſm, and tended to improve the Latin tongue.

III.

III.

As the national affairs grew more intereſting, they became fitter ſubjects for the arts of the Hiſtorian and the Orator. Genius, like moſt talents, is the fruit of favourable circumſtances. Great events have an intrinſic ſplendor, which cannot eaſily be eclipſed, and they as frequently hide the author's defects, as they receive embelliſhment from the force of his talents.

As a ſlight improvement in national taſte made Education an object of attention at Rome, ſo, when this attention increaſed, it re-acted

re-acted upon its cauſe with wonderful effect. Hiſtory of education at Rome. Reaſons for which public was preferred to private.

The practice of travelling into Greece, and the faſhionable admiration of Greek literature, contributed not a little to improve the language of Rome. Former advantages ſprang from the involuntary influence of example, and the natural intercourſe between neighbouring ſtates. At the period at which the practice mentioned took place, the Romans waited not till their connection with Greece ſhould be ſtrengthened by accident, but vied with each other in keenneſs to viſit this claſſic ground.

Manner

Manner in which inſtruction was conveyed at the Greek ſchools. Evils attending the Socratic method. In every ſtep of the converſation the ſtudent muſt have moved with diffidence, and, at the end of it, found himſelf rather puzzled than inſtructed.

The literary converſations in Greece aſſiſted the natives in that ſpecies of compoſition ſtiled *Dialogue*, and may be held the foundation of their ſuperiority in reſpect to it.

The patronage of the great was the laſt circumſtance, which, by foſtering genius, improved the Latin tongue. Sylla, Maecenas, and

and both Julius and Auguſtus Caeſar, were equally diſtinguiſhed as patrons and as judges of literature.

The reſpect always due, though ſeldom paid to literary ability, naturally increaſed it, and that merit which would have periſhed, had it been neglected, ſhot forth luxuriantly, under the approbation of the public.

The great aera of perfection in the literature of Rome was ſhort. The love of affected conceits undermined that ſimplicity of diction of which alone claſſical taſte can approve. Of all the ſpecies of compoſition Hiſtory was the laſt in which the Latin tongue gave ſigns

of its degeneracy. The language of Law naturally reſiſts the influence of corruption in every country. It is ſuſceptible neither of the higheſt elegance, nor of the groſſeſt debaſement.

IV.

The literary genius of the Romans may be traced in the works of their *Poets*, *Hiſtorians*, and *Orators*.

Poetry holds a high place among the fine arts. It appears to have been coeval with the uſe of ſpeech, and to have been wonderfully perfect in times of great ſimplicity. In the early ages of ſociety, men's ſenſes

ſenſes are acute, and continually directed towards the great beauties of nature. Ideas of property do not ſtiffle ſentiments of benevolence. Though the number of ideas then formed by the mind be ſmall, yet it diſcerns its ſcanty materials with preciſion, and even to the poet, accuracy of knowledge is more valuable than extent.

Compariſon of the art of poetry with the arts of *Muſic* and *Painting*. Grounds of ſuperiority in the former. Of the degree in which they are reſpectively imitative.

Fiction finds a place in all the kinds of poetry, and may be defi-

ned the creative power of poetical genius. It is properly the play of a luxuriant fancy ſubjected to certain reſtraints.

Deficiency in point of fancy renders literary productions cold, and exceſs renders them ridiculous.

V.

Among the different ſpecies of poetry, *Epic* deſerves to hold the firſt place. Its end is to excite admiration of heroic characters, and to ſtate theſe in ſuch ſituations as will beſt diſplay their virtues.

In

In the choice of a ſubject for an epic poem *three* things demand attention.

The *action* ſhould be founded on ſome event that is obſcure, but intereſting. Its unity admits the introduction of *Epiſodes*. Laws and purpoſes of theſe.

The *characters* ſhould be mixed. Introduction of unblemiſhed ones violates probability, and preſents ordinary misfortunes as the injuries of innocence.

The *Style* and *Sentiments* ſhould ſuit each character, and vary with the ſituations in which it is acci-

 dentally

dentally placed. The former ſhould be elegant, and the latter ſublime.

Virgil and *Lucan* have given ſpecimens of their ability as Epic Poets.

Virgil has followed Homer pretty nearly as a pattern. Often gives proof of a genius that is above the ſervility of cloſe imitation. Diſcovers much judgment in his choice of a ſubject. The defects of the Æneid lie chiefly in its characters. Its beauties. As the whole was left imperfect by the author, certain paſſages have a claim upon the critic's indulgence.

Lucan's

Lucan's Pharſalia is the combination of an epic and an hiſtorical compoſition. His ſubject abundantly ſplendid, but the events too well known, and the ſpirit of party too apparent. His taſte neither ſo accurate nor ſo delicate as that of Virgil. He is often fortunate in deſcription, though his fancy is ſometimes too ſtrong for his judgment.

VI.

The ſplendour of Epic poetry ſuited the taſte of the Romans more than any thing peculiar to *Dramatic*.

Tragedy

Tragedy engaged their attention but little. The rigour of their maxims, perhaps made them conceive misfortune to be the deſerved attendant of demerit. Their military ſucceſs, too, inured them to the ſight of human woe, and ſentiments of ambition may have extinguiſhed thoſe of ſympathy.

The ſubject of a Tragedy ſhould be replete with intereſting events, ſo as to excite terror and ſympathy. The chief characters in it ſhould have the weakneſſes of men, but none of their groſs vices. Of the *three Unities*, and their comparative importance.

Circum-

Circumſtances muſt riſe in dignity as the plot advances, and the cataſtrophe muſt unfold thoſe cauſes of every event that were before obſcure. Remoteneſs of date in the ſubject of a Tragedy ſupports both events and characters. 'Omne ignotum pro magnifico eſt,' ſays Tacitus, 'et major e longinquo reverentia.'

VII.

Although the Romans were but ſlightly affected with the miſeries of others, yet they were abundantly diſpoſed to make their vices and follies the ſubjects of deriſion. In the compoſition of *Comedy*, accordingly, they beſtowed much care,

care, and they acquired great reputation.

Though the ſenſe of ridicule is not the moſt honourable ſecurity for human virtue, yet its efficacy in this article entitles it to reſpect.

The rules to be obſerved by the Tragic and Comic poets are, in ſome meaſure, the ſame. Three circumſtances diſtinguiſh thoſe characters that are the fitteſt for Comedy. That of the ancients was more ſimple than that of the moderns, from a difference in the ſtate of manners.

Engliſh Comedy has often been deformed with obſcenities too palpable,

pable to be miſunderſtood, and too groſs to be pardoned.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed writers of Comedy at Rome were *Plautus* and *Terence*.

Plautus was the firſt who made any remarkable improvement upon Roman Comedy. His good and bad qualities as a writer.

Compariſon of Plautus with Terence. The habits of the poets, in private life, gave a particular bias to the genius of each. The former lived with people inferior to himſelf, and often ſtooped to pleaſe them; the latter courted the approbation of the judicious,

ous, and meaſured the value of his honours by the character of thoſe who beſtowed them. Merit of Terence in different reſpects.

VIII.

Lyric poetry is, of all, the moſt animated, and requires that highly figurative language which paſſion and ſtrong feeling dictate. It not only admits, but requires, the boldeſt rhetorical figures. Its beſt ſubjects are the praiſes of Gods and Heroes.

Seeming neglect of method, and deſultory turns of thought, conſtitute its beauties, as being the expreſſion of that enthuſiaſm,

under

under the influence of which it is underſtood to be compoſed.

Refinement in religious and ſpeculative opinions contracts the ſubject of Lyric poetry, and fetters the genius which would otherwiſe excel in it.

High merit of *Horace* as a Lyric poet.

Paſtoral poetry exhibits rural objects, or objects of another kind, under a rural allegory. Its form may be either dramatic, or narrative, or of a ſpecies that partakes of the nature of both. The fable muſt be artleſs, the manners ſim-

ple, and equally removed from refinement and ruſticity.

Paſtorals ſhould be ſhort, as being dictated by emotions, which, though vivid while they laſt, yet are ſoon over.

The effect of climate, in certain latitudes, is more favourable to paſtoral productions than in others. Objects connected with the ſea have been improperly made the ſubject of a ſpecies of paſtoral. The occupations of fiſhermen are unlike to thoſe of ſhepherds, and the dangers attending the element upon which the former practiſe their trade, accord not with that tranquil-

tranquillity which the latter may always enjoy.

Virgil has been as much indebted to *Theocritus* as to Homer. Merits of his *Eclogues*.

IX.

Didactic poetry, addreſſes both the taſte and the underſtanding, as its object is at once to amuſe and to inſtruct. All ſubjects are not equally good for it, on two accounts. It admits ornaments, but requires ſkill in the choice and application of them.

The originality of Virgil's genius beſt ſeen in his Georgics.

Beauties and defects of *Lucretius*.

Satyre is a ſpecies of compoſition that may appear either in verſe or in proſe. When in the former, it belongs to didactic poetry, and differs from its genus, as it ſneers at thoſe to whom it offers inſtruction, and upbraids them with folly or with vice.

The end of Satyre is to laſh the vices and weakneſſes of the age, rather than of the individual. Its poignancy is no abſolute quality, but depends upon the ſenſibility or the callouſneſs of thoſe at whom its gibes are aimed.

The

The apparent ſeverity of the Satyriſt ſhould ſpring from ſentiments that are really humane, and his wiſh ſhould be to correct without irritating the perſon whom he attacks.

The character of the early poets of Rome, ſuch as *Livius Andronicus*, *Ennius*, *Accius*, and *Pacuvius*, is to be found only in fragments and quotations.

General account of the moſt diſtinguiſhed Roman poets not before mentioned. Of *Ovid*, *Tibullus*, *Catullus*, *Propertius*, *Martial*, *Claudian*.

X.

The literature of Rome is diſtinguiſhed for compoſitions in *Proſe* as well as in Poetry.

Hiſtory, from its dignity and utility, was early an object of attention. In the moſt general ſenſe of the term, it denotes a magazine of facts, for the authenticity of which only the compiler is anſwerable. Such magazines promote the intereſts of ſcience and of art, but do not form that ſpecies of hiſtory which is the object of Criticiſm. Characters of it.

Hiſtory imparts inſtruction in the moſt agreeable manner, and at the

the ſmalleſt expence. It is the ſafeſt guide for the inexperienced; and, upon every rock that proved fatal to early adventurers, it leaves a beacon for the ſecurity of others.

The ſtudy of hiſtory is recommended by various principles in human nature. Enumeration of theſe.

The Hiſtorian's ſtyle muſt be perſpicuous, ſo as not to give his reader needleſs trouble; it muſt be elegant, ſo as to allure his attention, by gratifying his taſte. In the relation of facts, the hiſtorian muſt be faithful and impartial; his obſervations upon theſe muſt be

be neither trifling nor miſplaced. In viewing the conduct of men and of nations, he muſt ſhew himſelf both a rigid moraliſt and a profound politician.

Among the Hiſtorians of Rome, *Tacitus* is entitled to particular attention. Prejudices have ſubſiſted againſt his writings, chiefly becauſe they were not underſtood. Liſt and examination of theſe.

The moſt partial admirers of Tacitus cannot be always blind to his faults. He is at no pains to illuſtrate an obſcure thought, and often expects too much from his reader's penetration.

Account

Account of his private life, and of his different works. In theſe is to be ſeen the hand of the hiſtorian, the philoſopher, and the poet. As a moraliſt, Tacitus is entitled to our love, and as a politician, to our admiration. What he ſays of Agricola, he might have ſaid of himſelf, 'Bonum virum 'facile crederes, magnum liben-'ter.'

Compariſon of Tacitus with *Polybius* and *Thucydides*.

Character of other diſtinguiſhed Roman hiſtorians. Of *Julius Caeſar*, *Salluſt*, *Florus*, *Livy*, *Quintus Curtius*, *Velleius Paterculus*, *Suetonius*, &c.

XI.

XI.

Roman Literature exhibited a progreſs in the hands of the *Orator*, as well as of the Hiſtorian. Speech is a power that is ſuſceptible of wonderful improvements. By beſtowing attention upon it to a certain degree, men may make it miniſter to their enjoyment as well as to their uſe.

Eloquence is the art of exciting thoſe emotions in the mind of the hearer, with which the ſpeaker wiſhes to influence his conduct. Different definitions are given of this power, ſome of which are liable to objections.

The

The Orator may make his art ſubſervient either to good or to bad purpoſes. He tries to convince through the medium of affections, the beſt ſide of which are held forth to his hearers. He muſt adopt ſolid arguments, and exhibit elegance in his language, and force in his delivery. Above all, he muſt impreſs his audience with the belief of his own worth, and his powers will then be moſt conſpicuous, if he really is what he ſhould wiſh to be thought.

The power of Eloquence is not ſo viſible in modern, as it was in ancient times.

Govern-

Government, in ſome inſtances, ſtifles the genius to which climate is favourable; ſo that the phyſical and the political cauſes of Rhetorical eminence act in oppoſition.

The variety of verbal terminations neceſſary, and the liberty of tranſpoſition allowed in ancient languages, put it more in the power of the Orators of old to render their diction harmonious, and their deſcriptions animated.

The eloquence of the bar muſt have ſuffered, in ſpite of the merit of the pleaders, in proportion as the ſtudy of law has become laborious and ſcientific, and as references to the Judge's ſenſe of equi-

ty

ty have become rare, from the number of enactments.

Though the art of printing both diffuſes and preſerves the productions of eloquence, yet the invention has, upon the whole, impaired its power. The ear is the natural, and, of courſe, the moſt delicate judge of rhetorical ability. As the ſpirit of every piece of muſic is not catched by every performer, ſo thoſe nice beauties which juſt recitation can diſcover to the ear, cannot be communicated to the eye, even of diſcerning readers.

Cicero may be juſtly regarded as the Father of Roman Eloquence.

The ſtyle of his oratory different from that of *Demoſthenes*. It is more artificial, and leſs forcible.

Merit of Cicero as an *Epiſtolary* writer. Compariſon of his letters with thoſe of *Pliny* and *Seneca*.

HEADS

HEADS

OF

Philological Lectures.

PART III.

PRINCIPLES OF UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR, APPLIED TO THE LATIN LANGUAGE.

I.

BY ſtudying Univerſal Grammar, men improve their docility in reſpect to thoſe languages which they wiſh to acquire,

and their knowledge of thoſe which they have acquired already.

Roman Antiquities furniſh the ſtudent with facts which reſpect the Latin, and no other language. The rules of Criticiſm furniſh him with facts that are equally applicable to the literature of Rome, and to that of every other ſtate, in which learning had made the ſame progreſs. The principles of Univerſal Grammar furniſh him with facts that are more than general, becauſe they are the firſt laws of oral expreſſion, and apply equally to every language upon earth.

An arrangement of words is probably the firſt circumſtance that leads

leads to any reflection upon the arrangement of thoughts. The accuracy with which men utter their conceptions, indicates the accuracy with which theſe conceptions are formed.

They who are ignorant of Univerſal Grammar are apt to believe, that idioms in foreign languages are deviations from a ſtandard of propriety exhibited in their mother-tongue. Proficients in this ſcience know, that variety in idioms is conſiſtent with complete uniformity in reſpect to the great principles of ſpeech.

It is no eaſy point, in the philoſophy of Grammar, to fix the

boundary between thoſe licences which nature grants to the ſpeakers in different languages, and thoſe reſtraints which, with an invincible authority, ſhe impoſes upon all.

This boundary does exiſt, and may be diſcovered.

II.

The more minutely we conſider the nature of man, and of thoſe circumſtances in which he is placed, we ſhall find the uſe of ſpeech to be the more ſubſervient to his happineſs.

Had

Had his power of uſing ſigns been equal, or but a little ſuperior to that poſſeſſed by the brutes, his mental faculties muſt have been as much weakened, as the ſphere of their operation is thus ſuppoſed to have been confined. As a ſingle animal, then, he would have ſunk in the ſcale of being.

His power of gratifying his ſocial affections would not, in the abſence of ſpeech, have ſuited the vigour in which they now exiſt, ſo that all other gregarious animals muſt have been happier than him.

His capacity of becoming a member of civil ſociety muſt have been deſtroyed, as he could neither have

have defined his ſuppoſed rights, nor received any ſecurity that they would not be violated.

III.

The exerciſe of the faculty of ſpeech is coeval with the exiſtence of the human race. During *infancy*, experience has furniſhed no conceptions, and the organs of ſpeech have no functions to perform. Compariſon of ſpeech with our other powers.

In the moſt uncultivated ſtate of ſociety language is the object of no attention. A Savage uſes it as he uſes the light and the air, without ever thinking of its nature.

ture. Its principles he leaves to be delineated by the grammarian, when the light of ſcience ſhall have begun to dawn.

The ſcience of Grammar has been ſometimes deſpiſed, becauſe not underſtood. Pretenders to learning have artfully tried to ſcreen their want of penetration, by ſeeming to hold thoſe objects cheap of which they could form no juſt idea. As certainly as the laws of human thought are worthy of man's inveſtigation, thoſe of human language are ſo alſo.

Grammar occupies a high place in the ſcale of ſcience. Men muſt be in an advanced ſtate of ſociety before

before they discern even its existence. Reasons of this. Definition of Grammar. Its division into *Universal* and *Particular*.

IV.

In studying Universal Grammar, it is of no small consequence, that a just arrangement of the parts of speech be adopted. A bad system, however ably explained, must necessarily mislead, even in those points to which it is apparently applicable, and, in others, it cannot even seem to be useful.

When the Science of Grammar was in its infancy, the process of inquiry must have been from sin-

gle

gle terms, which are *Individuals* to thoſe claſſes which form *Species* and *Genera*. From the ſtate of the Science now, this order may be reverſed.

Examination of the opinion of *Monſ. De Buffon* as to the inexpediency of reducing ſpecies that are not numerous to their reſpective genera. Though the multitude of individuals in any ſubject of ſcience may be indefinite, yet a preciſe number of ſpecies only will juſt exhauſt theſe individuals, and a preciſe number of genera theſe ſpecies.

In many of the enumerations given of the parts of ſpeech, the rules

rules of legitimate claſſification have been violated. Grammatical diſputes have thus ariſen, from the ſame cauſe, on both ſides. Sound logic is the only ſtable foundation for ſound grammar, and claſſification properly conducted is but another name for ſcience.

Hiſtory of the enumerations of the parts of ſpeech, both by ancient and modern authors.

Of thoſe of *Plato*, *Ariſtotle*, *Harris*, *Wallis*, *Lowth*, *Girard*, *Buffier*, *Meſſieurs de Port-royal*, *Beauzee*, *Sanctius*, *Ward*, *Gebelin*.

Errors in ſome of the above-mentioned diſtributions. Suppoſed

ſed characters of a juſt one. That founded upon the ſignificancy and the non-ſignificancy of ſingle terms, though it was prevalent in ancient, and has been revived in modern times, ſeems highly defective, and ſcarcely intelligible.

V.

Nouns claim attention before the other parts of ſpeech, becauſe they announce the ſubject of every propoſition, or complete enunciation of thought. They are to the other words in a ſentence as the ſubſtance is to the qualities which it ſupports, and from the ſtrength of this analogy they have got the appellation of *Subſtantives*.

The object which the Noun repreſents, communicates to it that character by which it is itſelf diſtinguiſhed from every other object in nature. Changes in the accidental qualities of an object diſſolve not the relation between it and its ſign, but a change in its eſſential qualities is, in the eye of the Grammarian, equal to the deſtruction of the object itſelf. The identity of its matter does not balance the complete alteration of its form.

The accurate ſignification of the Noun, then, reſts upon that which ſecures the individuality of the object it announces. Examples from the names of chemical and other bodies.

Thoſe

Thoſe claſſes into which nature has diſtributed objects has prevented the neceſſity of vainly attempting to give each a name.

Declenſion denotes thoſe changes in the termination of the noun by which it is fitted to announce the relation in which it accidentally ſtands to ſome other term, either of its own or of a different nature.

Gender is a circumſtance by which the mind limits the multiplicity of beings, and upon which it founds an article of very general deſcription. It does ſo by aſſigning to every object either the poſitive quality of having one of

two ſexes, or the privation of both.

The diſtinctions eſtabliſhed by nature are in ſome languages made to give place to the analogy of termination as expreſſive of gender. Merit of the formers of the Engliſh in following nature ſcrupulouſly.

Compariſon of the Greek and Latin with the French and Italian in reſpect to Gender. The two ancient differ from the two modern languages, and all the four differ from the Engliſh.

By *Number* the mind intimates whether one or more objects engage

gage its attention at a given time.

Unity forms one of its diviſions in all languages, and this is applicable to each of the integrals of diſcrete quantity, whatever may be its ſubject.

Unity added to itſelf forms another, in certain languages, in which a *Dual* number is adopted.

Any addition of units whatever forms a diviſion in all languages, except the laſt, in which the *Plural* commences with the third inſtead of the ſecond unit.

VI.

The nature of *Pronouns* has often been but imperfectly delineated. This has been owing ſometimes to the inquirer's incapacity, ſometimes to his timidity, and ſometimes to his abſurdly attempting to make his inveſtigations level to the meaneſt apprehenſion.

If the grammarian's ſubject be dark, he has the more reaſon to uſe the privilege of puſhing it to its firſt principles, which every other philoſopher is praiſed for aſſuming, and there is more fairneſs and more merit in giving real inſtruction to a few than in making

king thouſands believe they underſtand what they really do not.

Pronouns not only ſupply the place of nouns, but they perform a duty of which nouns are incapable. They are ſubſervient to the accuracy as well as the harmony of ſpeech. They give riſe to *Perſons*, and to a variety of terminations in verbs. Circumſtances in which they agree and differ with ordinary nouns.

The plurals of pronous are not formed like thoſe of nouns, by the multiplication or continued addition of the object announced in their ſingular number. By the term *We*, the ſpeaker, and thoſe in

in name of whom he ſpeaks, are inſulated from all mankind; but that plural term is not reſolvable into a multitude of ſingular ones, denoting a correſponding number of individuals who ſpeak.

Of that which is ſtyled the *Relative Pronoun.*

The doctrine of the old Greek grammarians reſpecting the αρθρον πρωτοταχτικον and υποταχτικον is both ingenious and ſolid.

Singular terms and forms of conſtruction in the Latin language explained upon principles occaſionally laid down.

VII.

VII.

As human knowledge proceeds from the intimations of conſciouſneſs to the perception of qualities in objects, ſo *Definitives*, in the order of nature, are the firſt of all *Attributives*.

Of the diſtinctive characters of definitives, and their different kinds.

Thoſe definitives ſtyled *Articles*, are not neceſſary to every language. The Latin has none, and thoſe ſkilled in it feel no defect from the abſence of them. Had articles belonged to the language, it

it might have been more eaſily acquired; but, had the want of them hurt its perſpicuity, it could never have been uſed ſo extenſively, nor with ſuch preciſion as it was.

The Greek, French, and Italian have only one, ſimilar to our definitive article *The*.

In Greek the abſence of the article is equivalent to the preſence of the *indefinite* article in Engliſh. Examples.

Of the nature and varieties of *Numerals*, and the place which they ſhould hold as parts of ſpeech.

VIII.

VIII.

The *Adjective* differs from the definitive in ſeveral reſpects. Diſtinctive characters of Adjectives.

Gender is no attribute of Adjectives. Varieties in their termination denote a character that reſides in the nouns they qualify, but not in themſelves.

Adjectives have been confounded with *Participles*, very improperly. An Adjective admits of degrees of compariſon, which neither a definitive nor a participle can do. The ſpecification given by the former can be neither more nor leſs than it is announced, and the

the time inherent in the latter, as the part of a verb, can be neither deſtroyed nor altered.

IX.

Grammatical compariſon intimates the degrees in which the qualities announced by adjectives, or the modifications of thoſe qualities announced by *Adverbs* reſide in their reſpective ſubjects. Its range lies between the point that is neareſt the extinction, either of the quality or its modification upon the one hand, and that which forms their higheſt poſſible increaſe upon the other, incluſively. It becomes manifeſt, either by deviations from the ordinary termination

nation of the principal term, or by certain adverbs being prefixed to this term as acceſſories.

When an Adjective, with its ordinary grammatic form, is joined to a ſubſtantive, an ideal ſtandard is inſtituted, and degrees are determined by compariſon with this ſtandard.

Compariſon is applicable to all qualities indiſcriminately, provided they be ſuſceptible of *increaſe* and *diminution*. By means of it, different qualities, at the ſame time, and the ſame quality, at different times, may be recognized in one object, and either ſimilar or diffe-

rent ones may be recognized in two.

Tho' the ſenſe of equality is as neceſſarily the effect of comparing objects as that of difference, yet human language has made no proviſion for expreſſing the former, by any change upon the termination of Adjectives. Equality depends on a rare co-incidence, but diverſity may exiſt as often as the ſtates of qualities are ſuſceptible of change.

Illuſtration of the above and of other poſitions by examples.

X.

X.

The *Verb* holds a diſtinguiſhed place among the parts of ſpeech. It is, of all others, the moſt intricate. Its diſtinctive characters.

Before the formation of verbs there could be no intercourſe by ſpeech. The ſuperior ſimplicity of the ſubſtantive is apt to make it ſuppoſed that it exiſted before the Verb. Without the latter, however, the former would be of no uſe. In the accompliſhment of inſtincts there is a beautiful fitneſs in the means to the end. Inſtruments in the hand of nature are neither too feeble nor too ſtrong.

XI.

The doctrine of *Tenſes* has been always held one of the darkeſt in the ſcience of grammar. Moſt of the theories, offered to explain it, appear more intricate than the ſubject itſelf.

There is a greater probability of coming at the truth, by conſidering the ſimpleſt method by which the purpoſes of Tenſes could be ſerved, than by trying to reconcile the number of thoſe that have been in uſe to any adopted ſyſtem.

Theory upon this ſubject founded on our ideas of *Time*, as the meaſure of duration, and of its neceſſary diviſions.

Of

Of the ſyſtems of *Girard* and *Harris*, and the objections to which they ſeem liable.

XII.

Modes may be more eaſily explained than Tenſes, and have been leſs the ſubject of controverſy. Of the purpoſes to which they are ſubſervient. Power of the different modes as *Indicative*, *Optative*, *Imperative*, &c.

One mode is ſometimes ſubſtituted for another. In claſſical writers, a good reaſon may be always found for a deviation from what is common.

In ſeveral of the modes there is a character of contingency given to the event or action expreſſed by the Verb, which ſhews them to be allied.

Of *Auxiliary* Verbs expreſſive of Mode and Tenſe. Force of *Decet*, *Libet*, *Licet*, *Poſſum*. Inaccuracies committed by ſuppoſing theſe preciſely equivalent to the ſigns of certain modes by conjugation in Latin, and by auxiliaries in Engliſh.

XIII.

Gerunds agree in certain reſpects, and differ in others with participles. They govern as Verbs,

Verbs, and are ſubject to government as Subſtantives. They expreſs the action denoted by the Verb, without regard to any agent, or to any time.

The *Supine* alſo carries certain characters which ſhew it to be connected both with the Verb and noun. Difference between the firſt and the laſt. Opinions of Grammarians with reſpect to Supines. Thoſe of Beauzee and Gebelin appear to come neareſt the truth.

XIV.

Adverbs modify the qualities denoted by Adjectives, and the ſtates

ſtates denoted by Verbs. Origin of their name.

They are a ſpecies of attributives that are ſingular in *two* reſpects.

The coaleſcence between the Noun and its Verb, or its Adjective is immediate; but the Adverbial power is transfuſed to the Noun, through the medium of the Verb or Adjective, which it accidentally qualifies.

XV.

Conjunctions have ſeldom been explained in a way that is in any degree ſatisfactory. Of the function

tion which they perform in language.

Examination of *Mr Harris*'s opinion as to their nature. Of the propriety of claſſing them with prepoſitions under the general head of *Connectives*.

Manner in which the *disjunctive* power of Conjunctions operates. The account ordinarily given of this is unintelligible. No part of ſpeech can have one effect upon ideas and another upon their ſigns. A term independently of the thing it denotes can have no exiſtence, and, of courſe, can be ſubject to no grammatical law.

The

The tribe of Conjunctions are ſubſervient to very important purpoſes in ſpeech; and, according to a variety diſcernible in theſe purpoſes, are ſuſceptible of certain diviſions.

XVI.

Prepoſitions have a more limited influence in language than Conjunctions. Reaſon of this.

The philoſophy of Prepoſitions is a branch of grammar as important as it is dark. They operate in a double capacity, as ſimple and as compounded, and their power in the former muſt be thoroughly under-

underſtood before that in the latter can be at all apprehended.

The juſt uſe of Latin prepoſitions is underſtood by few, even of thoſe who pretend to be critics in the language. Little is to be gained upon the ſubject from ordinary dictionaries. The radical power of the prepoſition is ſeldom duly aſcertained, and from an error at the outſet, the line of metaphor cannot be traced, nor the different meanings reconciled.

Prepoſitions muſt have been among the laſt parts of ſpeech formed.

In Greek and in Latin the uſe of them was ſuperſeded nearly as much as poſſible, by the uſe of caſes. Of the power of the different caſes, and the manner in which they ſupply the place of prepoſitions.

Caſes cannot be very numerous. Men muſt ſoon quit the varieties of inflection upon a ſingle word in which the expreſſion of the relation is blended with the term, in the ſame way as the relation itſelf is in nature dependent upon the objects related.

Prepoſitions may be claſſed as well as conjunctions.

XVII.

XVII.

Interjections appear to be nearly allied to natural ſigns. Of all parts of ſpeech they come the neareſt to each other, in different languages, in point of ſound.

Interjections tend to bring the tone of the hearer's mind to that of the ſpeaker's. They ſuggeſt a ſubject of attention, and ſpecify its character.

By the Greek grammarians they were unphiloſophically referred to the liſt of Adverbs.

XVIII.

Syntax lays down ſuch rules for the arrangement of thoſe words which compoſe a ſentence, as fit them for expreſſing the intended conception preciſely as it is formed.

Of the diſtinction made by ſome French grammarians between Syntax and *Conſtruction.* The French have gone farther in the ſcience of grammar than any other nation in Europe.

Of the diviſion of Syntax into *Concord* and *Government*, and the purpoſes ſerved by each.

Though

Though each of the parts of ſpeech, in any language, muſt be the ſame with its ſuppoſed equivalent in all other ones, ſo that neither the nature of any one, nor the number of the whole, can be altered; yet, in the laws of Syntax, a conſiderable degree of latitude is left to human caprice. A ſevere compliance with the forms which Cuſtom has eſtabliſhed in any country, is the only circumſtance that fetters the irregularities of ſpeech, and prevents that rapid courſe of innovations which would defeat its purpoſes.

In all languages whatever, the circumſtance of poſition has a cer-

tain effect in marking the connected terms. This effect is greater in the modern than it was in the ancient. Even in theſe laſt, however, there were liberties in reſpect to arrangement not to be taken. Such liberties, to a certain degree, would have rendered the meaning ambiguous, and to a greater, unintelligible.

As the influence of poſition in the Syntax of any language diminiſhes, that of termination riſes. The great body of human thought, as well as the bonds of union among its parts, is the ſame every where, however differently expreſſed. The relations by which that

that ſeries of conceptions which forms a ſentence is held together, muſt be made to reſt upon principles that are capable of being defined. If the ſpeaker and the hearer have fixed theſe, it is of little conſequence upon what they are founded.

By an inveſtigation of the general principles of Syntax, that of particular languages might be rendered more ſimple, and the labour of acquiring them abridged. In teaching the dead languages too much is made to depend upon rule, and too little upon reading and obſervation. No rule almoſt can at all times be a complete directory, and few rules are ſo judici-

ouſly formed and expreſſed, as to afford all the direction they might yield. The learner's memory, accordingly, is often burdened with uſeleſs precepts, the myſterioufneſs of which is unjuſtly aſcribed to the ſubject that they were meant to explain.

XIX.

The ſtudy of the dead languages is, in this country, too ſoon begun, and too ſoon ended. Other nations have ſeen the folly of this ſyſtem, and have profited by avoiding it. Superficial knowledge only can be inſtilled into a child, whoſe mental and bodily

powers

powers ſuffer equally by premature exertions. When the ordinary courſe of ſtudy is finiſhed, a victory is often underſtood to be obtained before a ſerious ſtruggle is begun. Real ſcholars, however, take that rank in the literary departments of life which they deſerve, and leave thoſe behind them, who have ſuffered by impatience, to lament an evil which they can never remedy.

By delaying the ſtudy of the dead languages till the ſcholar was a little advanced in life, the expence of education would be diminiſhed, and its ſucceſs almoſt enſured. More might be acquired

red in a ſhort time, were the underſtanding at firſt allowed to unfold itſelf, ſo as to aid the memory. General views upon philological ſubjects would, in the end, be not only intelligible, but inſtructive, and that ſuperficial knowledge would be baniſhed, which generates preſumption, and is ſupported by grimace.

The delay now mentioned might produce an effect highly ſalutary to the morals of youth. That trying interval which ordinarily takes place between the end of their academical ſtudies and their entering upon any profeſſion, might be deſtroyed. Their habits of attention

attention might thus continue unimpaired, and they themſelves eſcape temptations, againſt which the idle can never be fortified.

The accompliſhments of a thorough proficient in Roman literature, it ſhould appear, are both numerous and valuable. Thoſe ſtudies which engage the Antiquary, the Critic, and the Grammarian, cannot be haſtily finiſhed. Philoſophers have, for ages, adopted, and do ſtill adopt the Latin as a vehicle for tranſmitting the diſcoveries of every country to its neighbours, and of every race to its poſterity. It has thus become the general repo-

repoſitory of ſcience, into which none need expect admiſſion, who, in early life, either ſaw not the value of the acquiſition, or poſſeſſed not thoſe habits of induſtry, by which alone it can be made.

FINIS.

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